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THE
Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



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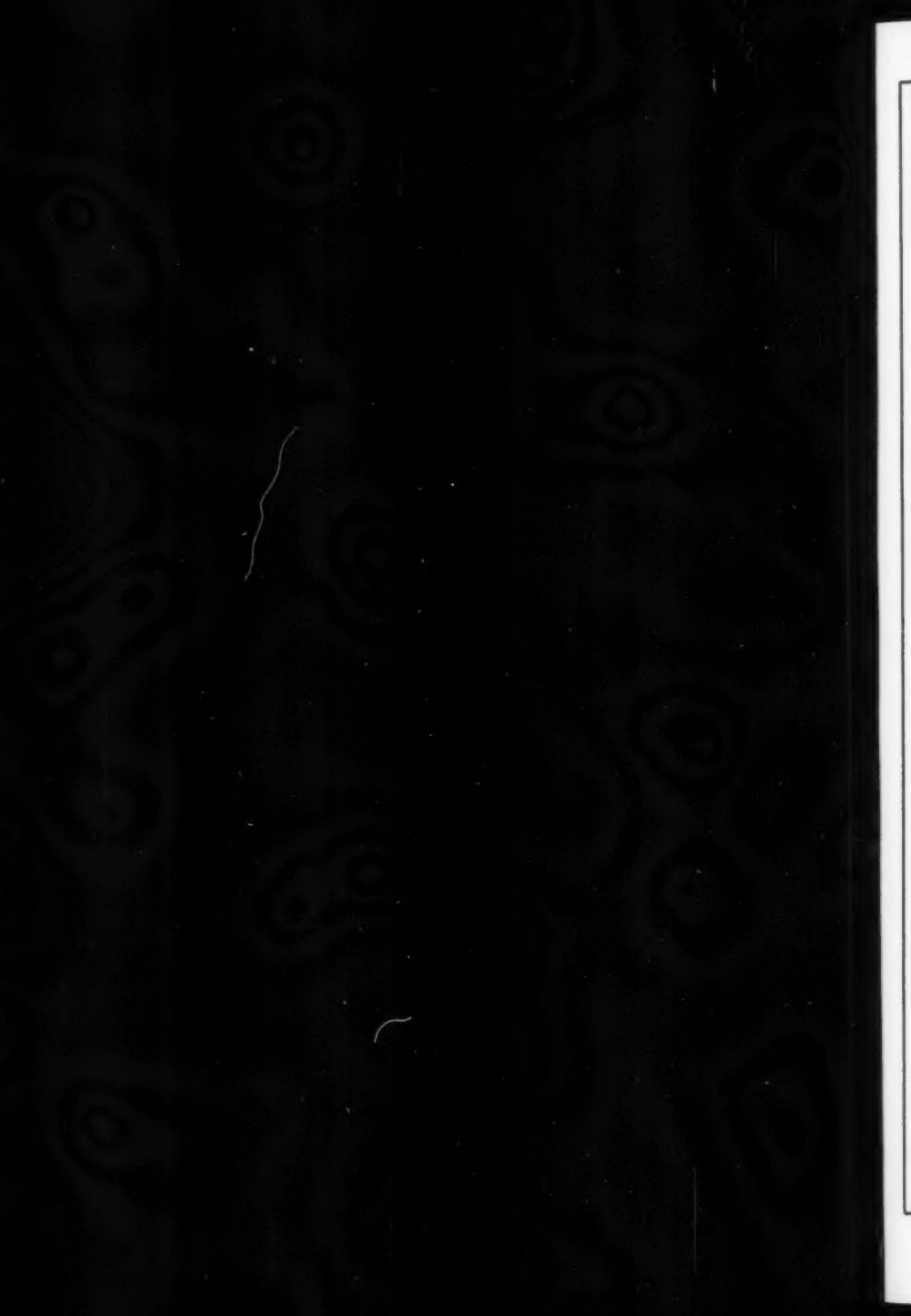
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The Guidance Program at Lafayette School

NAT BUSHAW
and SAM MANGIONE

THE description and evaluation of any educational process is admittedly a most difficult task. The values derived by all participants involved are frequently not easily discernible. The effects upon individual behavior patterns will, in some cases, not be known for years. However, as educators, it is incumbent upon us to scrutinize our efforts in order to provide services which are cognizant of the demands that a dynamic society will make on the children entrusted to our care. It is with the latter thought in mind that we at Lafayette have attempted to evolve a program of guidance services. A description of these services follows along with a brief commentary or evaluation where one is indicated.

Any guidance program worthy of the name must have the support and cooperation of the teaching and administrative staff. The requests for varied services made to the counselors by other staff members and the contributions made by them to the over-all program indicate a spirit of cooperativeness and support.

With regard to one aspect of the guidance program, namely, that of testing, the counselors have provided aid to staff members with problems concerning the administration, scoring, interpretation, and uses of tests. The specialized training required of guidance workers in this area equips them admirably to perform this role. This aid seems to be very much in demand and is most appreciated.

Another service provided by the guidance staff is that of orienting the incoming 7B students. In the past, this task was performed almost exclusively by the home-room teacher when the 7B pupils actually started attending Lafayette. This created problems of adjustment that often required six to eight weeks to be resolved. The incoming students knew little or nothing about their new school until they arrived on the first day of class. To make the transition from the elementary grades to the junior high school a more satisfactory and less anxious experience, the principal at Lafayette asked the guidance staff to devise an orientation program. A brief description of the program follows.

The 6-A students were invited to visit the junior high school, accompanied by their present teachers. The complete program was explained to them by junior high-school students who had been prepared for this

Nat Bushaw and Sam Mangione are members of the guidance staff of Lafayette School, Lincoln Park, Michigan.

task by the guidance department. The students had the opportunity to meet the principal and the 7-B teachers. A tour of the building was conducted by student leaders with groups of ten. The student tour leaders then sat with the small groups and chatted informally with them about the program and any questions that the 6-A's raised. These "buzz sessions" had to be interrupted since it was approaching the lunch hour at which time the youngsters were taken to the cafeteria for lunch.

The authors are convinced that this is a worth-while project because the youngsters who participated in this program adjusted to their new school with less difficulty than any of the 7B classes within the past several years. Admittedly, the home-room teachers are still involved in orienting the new 7B students since it is impossible to cover every facet of junior high-school life during one morning's program. As a result of this program, the teacher's task has been made much less burdensome, especially during the first few weeks of class.

The most vital aspect of an effective guidance program is the counseling function. This service is provided in various ways. Dedicated to the philosophy that *all* students should be the beneficiaries of guidance services we at Lafayette, as a matter of policy, implement this ideal. Every eighth-grade student has the opportunity to evaluate his interests, aptitudes, achievement, and all other pertinent data accumulated from the time he entered school to the present. This information is evaluated with the aid of a trained counselor before the student makes his course selections for high school. That this service is necessary has been demonstrated time and again to the counselors by the enthusiastic acceptance and satisfaction displayed by the recipients.

Referrals for counseling are also made by the teaching staff. These counselees, for the most part, have problems of a personal nature. The teachers are encouraged to prepare behavior journals for those students who require special attention. A good number of youngsters arrange for counseling interviews on their own which is always gratifying to the staff. Among the data to be included in the behavior journal would be the following:

1. Persistent tardiness
2. Results of conference between pupil and teacher when he returns to school after being absent
3. Inability to perform classwork without prodding
4. Continuous and lengthy periods of depression; also emotional reactions disproportionate to what the situation would normally involve
5. Inability to get along with peers; *e.g.*, in classroom, cafeteria, playground, *etc.*
6. Outstanding qualities of behavior; *e.g.*, ability to lead on playground, in classwork, special aptitude for art, music, athletics, operating audio-visual equipment, *etc.*

7. Pupil's reaction to being reprimanded or praised for behavior
8. Kind and quality of service rendered the school; *e.g.*, safety patrol, service squad, civic league, cafeteria, honor society, *etc.*
9. Reports of parent conferences by principal, teachers, or counselors
10. Reasons for retention or acceleration of a student
11. Physical handicaps observed; *e.g.*, sight, hearing, *etc.*

Parent conferences have been arranged when needed in specific instances where it was felt that the influence of the home might be brought to bear on a given problem. Conversely, it is not unusual for parents to initiate a conference for the purpose of evaluating a youngster's progress or to gain new insights with regard to parent-child relationships. The knowledge of counseling techniques and the ability to interpret test data is invaluable in bringing about parental understanding of a given problem situation.

Assisting in screening possible candidates for special education is another function performed by guidance personnel. Because this activity is of great importance to an individual who needs extra assistance, the accumulation of test results, anecdotal records, autobiography, and other information must be as complete as possible before teachers, counselors, the school psychologist, and the principal meet to discuss and decide on definite action. In order better to understand the "whole child," adequate time should be allowed trained personnel to increase the effectiveness of the case study. A person might ask why this preparation is necessary? *One*, it frees the school psychologist to work on other cases until the screening committee meets. *Two*, it releases teachers from the responsibility of performing this task so that they may devote more time to their subject matter. *Three*, it prevents unnecessary duplication of work. *Four*, it places responsibility in the hands of specially trained personnel in guidance and counseling for the preparation and presentation of pertinent information at the time of the meeting.

The preliminary work necessary for a good case conference follows a definite pattern: *One*, questions are posed by teachers concerning the pupil's intelligence, behavior, health, family background, *etc.* *Two*, an individual test, the *Stanford-Binet, Form L*, is given by a counselor. To be really effective, this test should be administered in blocks of time uninterrupted by outside demands. If the pupil scores below 70, local standards set by the school psychologist, recommendations for Special A or C Programs are introduced. *Three*, a report is sent to the school psychologist and a screening date is determined. Additional individual testing is then conducted by his staff. *Four*, prior to the screening meeting, as much information as possible should be collected and made available for the committee investigation. *Five*, the committee meets, discusses recommendations made, and subsequent action is taken jointly by the psychologist and the school. *Six*, follow-up reports by the special teachers are placed in the cumulative record upon preparation.

Group guidance is another phase of the pupil personnel services offered at Lafayette. This seems to be diametrically opposed to the thesis that effective counseling is a face-to-face relationship. However, group guidance techniques are used quite effectively in the area of occupational and educational information. This is done in several ways. The counselors meet with small groups of students interested in related occupational fields. Discussion centers around the opportunities available in occupations of particular interest to the students. The counselor is able to spend time exploring specific points in occupations which anyone unfamiliar with the literature in this field would find impossible to do. Group guidance is especially appropriate for language arts and social studies classes in which a counselor, either as teacher or resource person, would conduct this phase of informative service. This method has been used by a language arts teacher with 8B and 8A classes, in which occupation workbooks were prepared and discussions presented by the class. To be sure, every area was not covered nor completely reviewed, but this teacher feels that the students generally and specifically gained a more realistic approach to occupational information. As a result of this cursory inquiry, students who have left Lafayette come back from time to time to seek information because they recall the counseling room as a place where occupational pamphlets, reading lists, and additional educational information were obtained.

Here again is demonstrated justification for the existence of personnel trained in the guidance school of thought with adequate time to deal with individuals and groups in situations removed from the classroom atmosphere.

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Improving Instruction Through Guidance

WILLIAM F. BRAZZIEL

IT HAS become axiomatic in American education that the single reason for being of the school principal is the improvement of instruction and that the multitude of school keeping activities are subordinate to and must necessarily complement this central goal. Many American schools have found ways and means to free the principal for this important role through the provision of an adequate academic and non-academic staff and through the advancement of an enlightened philosophy from the board of education. To every principal who has seriously addressed himself to the task of improving instruction has come the problem of deciding the important question of: *Where to start and toward what short- and long-term goals* must the professional energy of the faculty be directed?

The improvement of instruction is defined as the improvement of the facility and prolificacy of teaching and learning. The internal criteria for success of the improvement program is the degree to which teachers and students are able to teach and learn more with greater ease. The external criteria is the performance in life of the students who have matriculated in school.

It is then clear that a matrix of factors make a difference in teaching and learning. Human relations, the physical plant, the curriculum and its activities, and faculty morale are only a few in the welter which is as broad and complex as the life of the school itself. Almost inextricably interwoven in this matrix are those factors which make a difference in the motivation and drive which a pupil has to learn and the ease with which learning for him will be accomplished—one half of a diad which is the teaching learning process. *These factors can be grouped and classified as needs for guidance* and if these needs are served well, teaching and learning prosper. In sum, guidance in schools can:

1. Improve the will to learn on the part of pupils,
2. Help pupils to utilize more expeditiously their abilities to learn, and
3. Enhance the abilities and capacities of teachers to help pupils learn.

The principal can make a decision on the guidance needs to be served, and so on the short- and long-term goals for the improvement of instruction, by: (1) assuming that the guidance needs which have been found

William F. Brazziel is Chairman of the Department of Secondary Education, College of Education, Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

through research to be present in the average American school population will also be present to a comparable extent in the population of his school, (2) identifying needs for guidance unique to his school and community through careful faculty study, and (3) committing himself and having his faculty commit themselves firmly to the conviction that these needs, if served, will make a difference in teaching and learning.

The universal needs for guidance in American schools are many. These needs have been severely outlined by research in psychology, human development and methods of teaching. It has been conclusively demonstrated that students learn better and teachers consequently teach better when:

1. Teachers, especially in the lower grades, have compiled sufficient information about each pupil to enable her (the teacher) to identify any needs for security, status, love, or new experiences which are unmet by home and community and to set about meeting the needs in the classroom.

2. The learning potential of each pupil has been *accurately* identified and he is adequately rewarded for achieving abreast of his potential.

3. Children and adolescents understand, expect, and appreciate the changes which their bodies undergo.

4. Children are successful in emancipating themselves from home and are able to enter peer groups successfully.

5. Children and adolescents have an adequate concept of themselves as human beings.

6. Adolescents have surveyed the total occupational opportunity of the nation, have *accurately* identified their interests and aptitudes, and have committed themselves early to goals in life which are both rewarding and attainable.

7. Parents are drawn into the formal educative process.

Such an imposing array of needs and goals will not be served in a short span of time. It will, instead, demand a continuous, well-planned, and vigorously implemented program of services which are systematically made available to every child and adolescent. Such a system is termed Guidance Services. Successful programs usually consist of faculty and staff efforts to systematically:

1. Identify and compile all pertinent data concerning the pupil's ability, achievement, interests, personality, problems, and psycho-physical life space. Such a service is usually termed *Student Inventory Service*.

2. Give to pupils the information necessary to make wise decisions in educational, vocational, and personal social planning—*The Information Service*.

3. Give to pupils the opportunity to have their problems considered individually—*The Counseling Service*.

4. Help each pupil become successfully placed in "next-step" personal, social, educational, or vocational activities—*The Placement and Follow-up Service*.

A wealth of literature awaits the reader who wonders if such a system is successful. Perhaps the most carefully contrived study in the past decade has been the recently completed (1957) "Wisconsin Study" which

set out to ascertain if guidance made a difference in the lives of children (*Personnel and Guidance Journal*, January 1958). Three-hundred students from three schools over a period of three years were given systematic comprehensive guidance services by an enlightened, qualified enthusiastic staff and faculty and compared with a control group of the same number and caliber. The experimental group studied harder in the classroom, committed themselves earlier to life goals, created fewer disciplinary problems, went on to college and further study in greater numbers, and secured better and more employment quicker. The teachers, obviously proud of their progeny, showed a decided improvement in morale and professional energy, and the community showed a greater pride and inclination to support the educational efforts of its schools. Such could happen to any school and community.

SPECIAL!

NOTICE OF CHANGE

in September 1959 issue
of THE BULLETIN

ON Pages 37 and 38 of the article entitled, "Approved List of National Contests and Activities, 1959-60."

1. **DELETE** (on page 37) the entire entry concerning the Pillsbury Mills, Inc., Recipe Contest

2. **ADD** (on page 38) to the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters Speech Contest entry the following (under the column headed "Title and/or Type of Contest Approved"):

"Voice of Democracy; broadcast script-writing contest"

3. **ADD** (on page 38) to the Scholastic Magazines, Inc., "Photo contest" the following:

"Creative writing, visual arts"

Is Teacher Home Visitation Valuable?

CURTIS R. WILKERSON

THE establishment of excellent rapport between home and school has long since been identified by teachers and administrators as important, if not imperative, in providing maximum educational opportunity for each pupil. With the thought of school and home cooperating more closely in the education of youth along with other kindred thinking in mind, the Harry P. Study Elementary- and Junior High-School staff studied ways of improving rapport with parents under the leadership of principal, Ralph E. Hamilton. As a result of this study, an organized teacher home-visitation program was recommended and carried out during the school year to substitute for the spasmodic teacher home-visitation program already in existence.

At the beginning of the 1958-1959 school year, the previous teacher home-visitation program was evaluated by the thirty-four members of the Harry P. Study staff. Few teachers questioned the home-visitation program as a device to improve rapport between home and school. Consequently, the program was scheduled for six different Tuesday afternoons in lieu of regular faculty meetings.

Prior to the beginning of home visitation during September and October, certain planning was done by staff members and summarized in the form of bulletins for the entire staff. This planning included the dates for visitation in homes, procedures and suggestions for interpreting the school program to parents, and a form for teacher use which provided space for name of parents visited and evaluation of visit. Inclement weather caused postponement of some visitation dates. However, visitation in the homes of approximately 800 students had been completed by early November.

Near the end of the visitation program, a questionnaire was distributed to teachers for evaluation of the 1958-1959 visitation program in terms of the feasibility of planning for visitation during future years. This questionnaire revealed that the vast majority of teachers wanted to repeat the visitation in the future.

After completion of the visitation program, many parents commented favorably concerning home visitation. This informal parent evaluation prompted the preparation of a survey form to measure more accurately the nature of parent opinion concerning the teacher home-visitation program. This survey form was sent to approximately 800 homes. Three hundred and twelve completed survey forms were returned. Results of this survey are listed below.

Curtis R. Wilkerson is Principal of the Harry P. Study School, Springfield, Missouri.

SUMMARY OF TEACHER HOME VISITATION SURVEY

<i>Questions included in survey</i>	<i>Response</i>		
	<i>Number omitting response for item</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>
1. Do you have a better understanding of the Study School educational program as a result of the teacher visitation program?	20	16	276
2. Do you feel that the school and home are in better position to cooperate in the education of your child as a result of the visitation program?	11	9	292
3. Have you as a parent appreciated the visitation program?	7	7	298
4. Would you like to see the visitation program continued?	4	4	304

In addition to the four questions listed above in the survey, one open-ended type of question was included, giving parents an opportunity to comment along miscellaneous lines. These comments are too diverse for complete summary here. They ranged from inviting teachers into homes for dinner to irritation at not being visited or not being included on first visitation date. The negative responses included above, for the most part, were explained in the space provided on the survey form for miscellaneous comments. Some of the respondents who answered questions in the survey negatively said they did so because they had been missed by a teacher during the visitation program. The feelings of some of the parents in the category just referred to seemed somewhat injured by the visitation omission. When some of these negative responses are analyzed in connection with the miscellaneous comments they, in reality, became a back-hand type of compliment for the visitation because these parents indicated that they had expected to be visited by a teacher and were disappointed when they were omitted.

To evaluate the teacher home-visitaton program discussed above and draw valid and defensible conclusions would obviously be difficult, if not impossible, because of the intangible nature of the program. However, there seems to be some evidence that teachers meeting parents in their homes is stimulating greater parental interest in the Harry P. Study School.

Since the inauguration of this program, parents have attended Parent-Teacher Association meetings in greater numbers. School functions have also had increased attendance. A record breaking crowd attended open house during American Education Week. A recent building bond issue election received an 85 per cent affirmative vote, the highest percentage in recent years. Teachers have indicated that they understand the community environment and the home environment much better as a result of the visitation program. These and other factors of a more intangible nature in the realm of improved student-teacher and parent-teacher relationships seem to be evidences of the impact that teachers have on parents in the area of improved human relationships and the establishment of better rapport between home and school.

The Teacher-Counselor Program

WILLIAM K. RAMSTAD
and WILLIAM REISS

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

There should be more time for guidance activities than is available in most schools. School time should be provided especially for individual guidance activities such as conferences between pupil and home-room teacher, counselors and other guidance specialists. There should be some recognition in the teacher's load of the time he should devote to guidance.¹

UNDER the present Morgan program, the teacher-counselor typically teaches a two-period block of social-language arts during the morning, a two-period block in the afternoon, and one elective period during the noon hour for a total of five teaching periods. The students in the two-block programs become his counselees. In addition, the teacher-counselor is provided with a lunch hour, a planning period similar to all other teachers, and a counseling period. This is an attempt to provide the teacher-counselor with the time needed to do the counseling and guidance job required in a junior high school. All other teachers meet a schedule of six classes per day. The present program involves 1,067 seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade pupils and forty-two classroom teachers.

This program also serves to make the entire school staff "guidance minded" because a large number of teachers, eighteen in 1958-59, are involved in counseling, not just *the* counselor. Along with this program, additional clerical help for teachers is provided so that attendance procedures, money collections, book responsibilities, and similar necessary tasks no longer require extensive teacher-time. This allows the teacher-counselor time for the job. The teacher-counselor also frees other teachers of some non-teaching responsibilities and thus tends to make better teaching possible in all subject fields.

Many times, full-time counselors gradually are assigned non-counseling responsibilities until their original purpose is lost. This is not possible under the teacher-counselor program, since his regular teaching and counseling requirements do not make him so readily available to the principal who would convert him to a "semi-administrator." Many good counseling programs are diluted in this manner.

¹ William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass. *The Modern Junior High School*. New York: The Ronald Press. 1947. P. 458.

William K. Ramstad is Principal and William Reiss is Vice Principal of the Thomas Hunt Morgan Junior High School, E. 162nd and 25th Avenues, N.E., Seattle 55, Washington.

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES OF THE TEACHER-COUNSELOR

... of all school personnel, the classroom teacher has the closest and most continuing relationship with boys and girls and, by virtue of this relationship, must assume the major role in their guidance.²

One of the most important aspects of the teacher-counselor's role is that he maintains a daily contact with his students. This is not possible when the counselor is a non-teaching member of the staff. The academic progress of the student can be noted daily and thus he can be guided more satisfactorily.

The guidance and counseling activities of the school are often misunderstood by the public. The teacher-counselor is not another "non-teaching" person, thus answering critics who may feel that a junior high-school staff may become over-balanced with non-teaching personnel. Naturally, the person selected as a teacher-counselor must be a strong classroom teacher, and a person who has the confidence of the student and parent.

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE TEACHER-COUNSELOR

Roeber, Smith and Erickson speak for the teacher-counselor program when they say:

Experience has shown that teachers, valuable as teacher training and experience may be, are not able to carry through optimum guidance practices. In other words, teachers are not counselors; given an interest in guidance activities, adequate personal adjustment, and some appropriate professional training, teachers may become counselors. Fortunate indeed is the school that has counselors or teacher-counselors who are prepared for the counselor's role. The substitution of home-room teachers who are inadequately trained for counseling and other guidance activities for counselors is one example of an attempt to find an easy and inexpensive substitute for counselors and teacher-counselors. In most cases the use of such a substitute means of providing guidance service has proved ineffective. Moreover, adequately trained teachers, home-room and other, cannot provide satisfactory guidance services, particularly counseling, unless released time is provided in the daily schedule for that purpose.³

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 spelled out very clearly the intent of Congress to upgrade the mathematics, science; and foreign language programs in American secondary schools. Coupled with this and tied very closely to it is the program of counseling and guidance as outlined by the National Act. The Act provided, through a series of scholarships and summer workshops, for the upgrading of teachers who are engaged in guidance and counseling activities. The net result of this should be that more and more people in our schools will become skilled

² *Guidance in the Curriculum*. Yearbook, Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, Washington, D.C. 1955. P. 224.

³ Edward C. Roeber, Glenn E. Smith, and Clifford E. Erickson. *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*. New York: McGraw-Hill and Co. 1955. P. 47.

in these areas. However, as yet, the Act does not provide additional funds for school districts to employ additional counseling or guidance people. It appears that staff members will continue to be employed in nearly the same pupil-teacher ratio as presently exists. This makes it imperative that more and more people become involved with the counseling and guidance responsibilities without any subsequent lowering of the pupil-to-teacher ratio. In some respects, the teacher-counselor program is an answer. It appears that the requirements of the national program can be met without an abnormal increase in the district budget.

One of the most important responsibilities of the teacher-counselor has to do with the evaluation and appraisal of students under his direction. This results in a better educational program for all students. The teacher-counselor, in making his daily contact with all of his counselees, is constantly on the alert for the academically talented student as well as the slow learner or the emotionally disturbed. Each teacher-counselor has a close relationship with the school nurse, psychologist, and other guidance department personnel.

As we move toward a program of ability or achievement grouping, the role of the teacher-counselor becomes more and more important. In order for a grouping program to be successful, it is imperative that there be qualified people involved in making the appraisals. This responsibility rests squarely on the shoulders of the teacher-counselor, who again has daily contact with the student and, in addition, is trained by nature and education to make this sort of an evaluation.

Considering grouping and accelerated programs, the junior high-school elective program fits very carefully into place, since it is through the elective program that varying needs of junior high-school students can be met. Placement of the student in one of forty electives is a task requiring a great deal of time on the part of the school staff. Again the teacher-counselor plays a leading role in this program as he works with his counselees in helping them make proper selections to satisfy present needs and future educational goals.

As programs change and new ideas are introduced, it is most important that the parent of the school child be constantly informed of the school program. Here again the teacher-counselor is the key person. He is responsible for about seventy students under the present program which makes it possible for him to have some contact with the home during the school year. He naturally takes those cases that require attention first, but through the PTA, group conferences, and other community activities, he is able during the year to make some kind of contact with each of the parents. The parents appreciate their contacts with the teacher-counselor because he has a direct contact with the child each day. He understands him better than anyone else in the school program. The parent recognizes that the teacher-counselor is concerned and informed as to the progress of the child.

In the whole guidance and counseling program, the presence of the teacher-counselor enables other staff members, principal, vice-principal and head counselor to be free to handle more difficult referrals as every attempt is made to have the teacher-counselor have the first contact with the student. The departmentalized teachers who may refer a student for academic or discipline reasons are encouraged to see that the student is called to the attention of the teacher-counselor before being referred to the office.

The non-teaching responsibilities of the teacher-counselor are many and varied. He is responsible for keeping cumulative records for each student. He routes report cards and notices of unsatisfactory or superior work. He maintains the health record of the student, parent conference reports, anecdotal records, and other items that become a part of the pupil file. He takes a leading role in the registration program not only as the ninth-grade pupils enter the high-school program, but also as each student enters the succeeding grade level.

We have seen what we feel to be major improvements in school organizations as well as curriculum offerings through the teacher-counselor program. The elective program, the accelerated learner program, the remedial program, the pre-vocational program, the survey program for talented eighth-grade students, all have been based on an adequate evaluation of students by teacher-counselors. As we strive to make constant improvements in the curriculum offerings of the junior high school, it becomes more and more evident that the success of such a program is based almost entirely on the availability of staff members who are trained, qualified, and interested in making the evaluations that are necessary if students are to be placed properly according to their interests, aptitudes, and abilities. If this is to be done, persons so charged with the responsibility must have the time to appraise adequately the student, material about the student, test results, comments of previous teachers, health picture, parental requests and backgrounds, and other items of concern to the student.

As we move into the critical years ahead in an attempt to interpret the ramification of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, it becomes more and more apparent that we must continue to do a better and better job of evaluation. As we add to the great variety of course offerings in the secondary schools, as we begin to offer as many as four different science offerings in each grade level, four different mathematics programs, different reading and literature levels, it becomes more and more apparent that the success of these programs is directly related to the caliber of the counselors available. It does not appear, or does it seem wise at this time, that we will be able to offer a full-time counselor program in which the case load is a reasonable figure. Most authorities indicate that 250 students for a full-time counselor is a manageable group, but it does not appear to us after our two years of experience with the teacher-counselor

program, that a full-time counselor with even a minimum case load could accomplish the appraisal and evaluation program that Morgan teacher-counselors have been able to do during this period.

One part of the program that does not directly deal with counseling or guidance but has a bearing on the total staff assignment has to do with status problems that our single salary schedule brings with it. In a typical junior high school, there are not many status positions. The teacher-counselor program provides such positions since the person selected for this program gains recognition not only from students but also from parents and fellow staff members. This does not mean that the departmentalized teacher occupies a lower place on the staff. Many departmentalized people have an opportunity for status through chairmanships or as department heads. The teacher-counselor program offers one additional status position not commonly found in the junior high school.

Handbook for Discipline

GLENN F. NOLAN

THE job of a principal is to administer the instructional program of his school. Serious juvenile troubles appear ubiquitous and complicate that job. In these delicate days it behooves all peoples to set their behavioral houses in order. In San Bernardino, definite steps have been taken in the schools toward the end of securing proper conduct from students. This system has a *Discipline and Control Handbook* which is promulgated Board of Education policy for the particular purpose of providing all concerned with information relative to procedures for handling situations interfering with the on-going instructional program.

Such a published handbook, known and understood by parents, children, teachers, and administrators can serve to promote good school discipline. Since discipline is defined as "state of order maintained by training and control," self-discipline, which is a much desired student attitude, must include self-control. Does the handbook promote this desired end? It is felt that it does help in that direction.

Let us examine some of the specifics. Suspension for some offenses is mandatory. A partial explanation of those offenses includes:

- a. The carrying or using on the school grounds of weapons or instruments designed to do bodily harm
- b. The possession or use on the school grounds of narcotics or alcoholic beverages
- c. An act of defiance in either language or action
- d. Stealing, 2nd offense
- e. Gambling, 2nd offense
- f. The wilful defacing or damaging of public school property unless immediate restitution is made
- g. Forging or using forged excuses
- h. Smoking
- i. Other offenses will receive the punishment judged reasonable and proper by principal or teacher.

Publishing the handbook in the first place was a giant step toward training and control. Specifying and delimiting offenses which would require disciplinary action tend to elicit a measure of self-control from students, for experience has shown that it is a rare student indeed who really wants suspension. Teachers like the solid information relative to

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obligations and rights. Administrators tend to appreciate the handbook generally, in all aspects.

During the course of a year or two, the administrator will inevitably have occasion to resolve problems of serious consequence in discipline. He will need a discipline reference often. He will be thankful that he can expect the "full cooperation of the school staff" and "full support and backing of the superintendent and the Board of Education in his reasonable actions and decisions." These provisions are assured in the handbook. It is good to know that one can think and act from a position of strength in handling discipline matters. It is quite clear, moreover, that, in order to avail one's self of this wonderful assistance, one must be always reasonable and prudent. This is as it should be.

As dean of boys at Fremont Junior High School, the writer can say that he refers frequently to the *Discipline and Control Handbook* of the San Bernardino City Schools, in which system he is employed. It has been of great value many times in clarifying and resolving difficult issues. It has a soothing effect on irate parents. It quiets recalcitrant students. It has a steadying effect on the administrator.

Development of the San Bernardino handbook came about after long and arduous effort of top administration and teaching personnel working together in a common effort to resolve a mutual problem of gravity. These efforts led to the development of a guide of genuine help to all concerned in clarifying "measures we believe essential for the promotion of good citizenship and effective learning in the school environment." There is a great deal to be said in favor of adopting such a handbook as official board of education policy.

A Guidance Handbook

FRED R. MARSHALL

THE student body at West Junior High School, in the newly incorporated City of Downey, California, has made a recent investment in its future. Through the student council of their school, the 900 students have allotted enough money from the 1958-1959 budget to pay for the printing of 2,000 copies of a fourteen-page illustrated booklet on the guidance program at West. This booklet has been distributed into the home of every student, to guidance departments in leading state and national institutions, and even to parts of Europe. It has proved a helpful aid in giving a picture of the counseling program in a leading American secondary school.

The tremendous task of publishing this guidance booklet has been accomplished with the advice of Dr. Gordon Warner, who is an associate Professor in the Division of Education and Psychology at Long Beach State College in Long Beach. He has served as a consultant for the booklet and, in his travels to the Brussels World's Fair, he exhibited it in world-wide education groups. It received favorable attention and many requests have been filled to educators abroad who have wanted to study the plan.

On the cover of the attractive booklet is an informal picture of West Junior High students entering their school hallway. In the opening pages, a map of the entire Los Angeles area is included, a red dot distinguishes Downey. Pictures of the administrative and guidance staff are shown throughout the booklet in informal campus shots.

The message from the principal, which is one of the first pages to come to the attention of the reader, gives the basic philosophy of the guidance program of the school. In it he states: "The counseling staff at West is the core of the program and co-ordinates the activities of a staff of truly professional teacher counselors. A high degree of successful guidance is accomplished by effort from all rather than from a few trying to carry an impossible load."

Throughout the booklet are explanations of the proceedings used in reaching the objectives of the counseling program, the health program, curriculum scheduling, the testing procedure, and the vocational program. Accompanying the explanations are pictures of students and guidance personnel working together. The structure of the booklet is one

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that would be a real aid to anyone who is interested in setting up a similar program.

As an example of the implicit explanations given, the reader learns that included in the duties of the Dean of Girls and seventh-grade counselor, are the counseling of the girls in the school about their personal problems, the issuing of necessary discipline action and the giving of helpful advice. As seventh-grade counselor, she registers new students and supervises the counseling and testing of the seventh-grade students. Another responsibility Miss Weight has is that of directing and advising student activities such as the student council, the citizenship council, student elections, and the Girls' League.

Counseling objectives for the grade counselors to work towards are named in the brochure. Some of them are: to contact each boy and girl at least once during the semester, to carry on a follow-up program, to administer a testing program for new enrollees, and to aid as much as possible in adjusting problems among teacher, pupil, home, and school.

Further duties of the grade counselors are to assist the students in the proper selection of subjects, the improvement of study habits, the counseling of students who are not socially well adjusted, and in aiding the teacher to understand the pupil better. They also direct the registration of students for the next year's work.

The plan for the distribution of the booklet to the students in the future is to give one to incoming seventh-grade students and to newly enrolled students who have not yet received one. It will be a part of the orientation material for them just as their school handbook is.

Favorable comments from parents and educators have been received since the distribution of this guidance booklet. It has done much to clarify the services of the school personnel engaged in this phase of education. Since it is comparatively new to many of the older generation, the clear explanations have accomplished a great deal towards explaining the real service rendered and the tremendous value to the boys and girls who benefit from it.

It has been called a "strong, effective means of public relations," and "a good means of bringing the community closer to the school." Parents have been particularly pleased to note that the students, themselves, felt it important enough to budget their earned money so that the entire community could learn of the work of their school's staff.

Costs for the illustrated publication have been decreased considerably because of a new machine used in printing. It is called the Roneo Duplicating machine and was invented and manufactured in England. By the use of it, the printing and the photography can be mimeographed at the same time, thus saving time and expense.

The Home-room Teacher's Responsibility for Curricular Guidance

HARRY C. PRY

RESPONSIBILITIES OF HOME-ROOM TEACHERS

THROUGHOUT high school a pupil is counseled in many areas, under varying conditions and circumstances, and by different members of the school staff. One member of the staff who makes frequent contact with the pupil is the home-room teacher. In the exercise of the guidance function, he frequently helps pupils in their educational and vocational decisions.

The home-room originated as a necessary administrative device.¹ When the school became too large for the principal to meet all the pupils, the student body was split up into groups of classroom size, and most of the teachers were assigned one of these groups. An early description² of the home-room depicts the teachers as keeping the record of pupil attendance, copying academic records, disseminating school notices and general information, keeping the records of textbooks and supplies distributed to pupils, being responsible for the discipline of the pupils of the home room, and counseling pupils concerning their election of studies. Although the home room was mostly an administrative convenience, a means of making administrative policy felt by all pupils, the last named category of duties of the teachers is plainly in the field of guidance.

Since the day of Ballou's description, a conception of the home room has grown up which goes far beyond performance of the duties he named. Beginning in the nineteen twenties, theorists have pointed out that the home room should be thought of as a positive educational medium. Such a grouping of pupils, they said, could be utilized to give an experience in social living.³

To some extent, practice has followed theory. Home-room groups are organized as clubs in which the members seek to live together, to help each other in the solution of all manner of personal and academic problems, and to create opportunities for social recreation.⁴ In many schools, however, home rooms do not reflect this larger role. They are mainly

¹ Clifford E. Erickson. *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1947. Pp. 251-252.

² Frank W. Ballou. *High School Organization*. Yonkers, New York: World Book Co. 1914. Pp. 81-83.

³ Philip W. L. Cox and John Carr Duff. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1946. P. 247.

⁴ An example of such a home room is to be found in the following reference: Frances Humphreys. "Interaction in Homeroom 225," *School Review*, LVII, September 1949. Pp. 358-363.

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administrative agencies, operating the attendance record mechanism, carrying on the service of information concerning school regulations and opportunities, and keeping records. In some cases, the time scheduled for home-room activity is too brief to allow for further development. In other cases, teachers and principal have not caught the vision of larger possibilities.

Whatever the stage of development of the home room, teachers are expected in many schools to help pupils in their choice of subjects. While more and more schools are being staffed with counselors, much of the work of advisement must be done by the home-room teacher. His daily availability and constant contact are still counted on by the pupil and the administration alike for the semester-by-semester subject decisions.

This responsibility was found by Kefauver and Scott⁵ to be an outstanding function of teachers. In a survey containing a list of 145 possible practices carried on in the home rooms in 130 schools distributed throughout 37 states, they found that 88 per cent of the 75 junior high schools and 84.6 per cent of the 55 senior high schools reported that pupils were advised as to their choices of subjects in the home room. These were the highest percentages for activities related to guidance in these investigators' checklist.

In helping pupils to plan their educational programs, the home-room teacher studies the school's total program and confers with them about needs. As this kind of guidance service often pre-supposes vocational goals toward which youth may be striving, relations of subjects to vocations must be known.

QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE EXERCISE OF EDUCATIONAL AND CURRICULAR GUIDANCE

What knowledge and skills are needed by the functionary who helps boys and girls in high school choose their curriculums and subjects? If the offering of the school is broad enough to correspond to the varied abilities and needs of the typically heterogeneous student body, it will be broad indeed, including perhaps 50 or 100 units of work from which the student chooses 17. The home-room teacher cannot possibly have studied all of these subjects. Yet he must know what abilities are involved in the study of them, what the outcomes will be in terms of pupil growth, and what the relationships of those outcomes are to vocations, recreations, citizenship, or other aspects of life for which we prepare youth through the schools. In brief, he assists the pupil in any given semester or school year to choose curriculums and subjects in the light of the pupil's long-time plans for educational development and for contemplated careers.⁶

⁵ Grayson N. Kefauver and Robert E. Scott, "The Homeroom in the Administration of Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XXXI, April, 1930. P. 634.

⁶ Shirley A. Hamrin and Blanche B. Paulson. *Counseling Adolescents*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc. 1950. Pp. 188-189.

Fundamentally, the home-room teacher is a subject teacher. He has had little or no preparation for his duties as a home-room adviser. His training has centered upon the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of his major and minor fields of study, as well as becoming familiar with methods and techniques of teaching these materials to adolescents. Even such college courses as educational psychology, mental measurement, or adolescent development which he has taken have served to increase his understanding of the teaching role insofar as helping pupils develop skills in the tool subjects and furthering their appreciation are concerned. But to what extent has he been prepared to guide youth in making wise curricular choices and adjustments of various types? What frameworks of reference does the average home-room teacher possess to provide himself with the necessary evaluation of the variety of choices confronting the high-school pupil? Can he detach himself long enough from his own narrow fields of subject specialization to look appreciatively at the total curriculum of the school, as this curriculum relates to the needs and goals of modern youth? Satisfactory answers to such queries would probably indicate a better, all-round orientation of teachers prior to their engaging in the counseling role.

Suggestive of the inadequate preparation of the teacher for his home-room guidance function may be cited the relatively few present-day home-room teachers who have studied Latin in high school or college. Can we expect them to place proper values on Latin? Also illustrative of weak spots in the teacher's responsibility for guidance is the French or Spanish teacher who knows little and cares less (perhaps?) about the values to be found in industrial arts; or the home economics teacher who insists that every girl in her home room should sign up for advanced home-making for the following year regardless of the girl's vocational plans or college entrance requirements; or the home-room teacher, unfamiliar with the rigorous demands of the engineering field, who permits a failing pupil in algebra to elect geometry or advanced mathematics. Most glaring of all would be the teacher who permits the college-bound music student to select such subjects as theory and harmony, music appreciation, chorus, band, and orchestra, and then be unable to schedule the necessary "hard-core" subjects like English and physics so necessary to general educational development and a liberal arts background. Thus, with the present elective system, there would appear to be many gaps in teachers' experiences with the school subjects.

If the general run of teachers have labored under handicaps in performing the guidance function, they, nevertheless, are supposed to be persons of liberal education, broad understanding, wide orientation, and mature judgment. However, the nature of the elective curriculum which they have come through, both in high school and in college, may legitimately raise some speculation as to whether there may not be some fields of study with which they have had little or no contact. This then

is the problem: How can teachers have the breadth of understanding of education and vocations to be able to give a heterogeneous student body adequate curricular and vocational guidance?

RESEARCHES RELATED TO THE PROBLEM

Only a very limited amount of research has been done in the field of home-room guidance, and practically none has been attempted in the area of teacher attitudes and values relating to the various school subjects in the high-school curriculum. Since this article concerns the responsibility of the teacher for offering curricular and educational guidance in the home room, mention may well be made, first, of the study by Kefauver and Scott,⁷ already cited. They used a checklist of 145 possible practices carried on in the home rooms in 130 schools distributed throughout 37 states. Their findings showed that in 88 per cent of the 75 junior high schools and 84.6 per cent of the 55 senior high schools canvassed, pupils were advised in their choice of subjects in the home room. No other guidance practice was carried on so extensively as this one.

Next closely related is Genovese's⁸ study, but it does bear on the effectiveness of home-room group guidance. He was concerned with obtaining the reactions, opinions, and judgments of 3,471 pupils with regard to their home-room group guidance programs during the year 1939-40.

Expressions of pupil opinion were confined in this study to inquiries regarding the value of topics or problem areas presented to home-room groups; their manner of presentation; and the activities of the teachers and pupils in connection with programs that pupils deemed were their most valuable, their second most valuable, and their least valuable. Some attempt was made to canvass boys' and girls' choices of courses as part of home-room guidance, but this attempt was pupil-centered. In the tenth grade, choice of courses ranked second as to relative value of topics or problems studied, whereas vocational choices ranked first; in the eleventh grade, curricular choice ranked fifth; and, in the twelfth, it ranked eighth. Early in the high-school pupil's career, it is necessary, then, that the home-room teacher be familiar with the educational benefits accruing from the curricular choices of youth, for these selections have greatly to do with their whole future life.

Santavica⁹ defined the role of the home-room teacher as it ought to be in the area of distributive guidance. In his study he compiled and later telescoped 2,411 tentative concepts of distributive guidance which home-room teachers should possess. Such telescoping resulted in a total of 268 concepts. These were then subdivided into 13 categories. In one

⁷ Kefauver and Scott, *op. cit.* P. 634.

⁸ Clarence T. Genovese, "A Consensus of Senior High-School Pupils Concerning Group Guidance Programs in the Home Room." (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1941.)

⁹ G. G. Santavica, "An Inventory of the Concepts of Distributive Guidance Which Home-room Teachers Should Possess." (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1951.)

of these categories ("Educational Information") are listed two concepts of guidance which are relevant to this article. Concept Number 37 states: "Educational guidance becomes more effective when the counselor helps the pupil to elect courses in the light of a total program which has been chosen to fit a comprehensive goal." Concept Number 38 is expressed thus: "For exercising curricular guidance, the counselor must know the curricular offering, . . . the subjects and their values and requirements in human ability."

These two concepts, along with all the others in Santavicca's list, were then submitted to a jury of 14 secondary-school counselors and 10 college teachers of guidance courses. The findings of Santavicca's study showed that a total of 75 per cent of both college teachers and counselors felt that the home-room teacher should possess Concept Number 37 (the counselor helps pupils to elect courses). Also, a total of 75 per cent believed that the home-room teacher should possess Concept Number 38 (the counselor should know the subjects and their values and requirements in human ability).

The extent to which various functionaries in the school perform guidance services for pupils was studied by Miller a number of years ago. She canvassed a group of high schools enrolling 1,000 or more pupils and found that ". . . the principal and the home-room teacher each assume major responsibility in 27.5 per cent of the schools. . . . The logical person to assume the guidance responsibility is the vocational counselor or counselors, depending upon the size of the school; yet the principal and the home-room teacher do far more of this work."¹⁰

Other research studies suggest techniques in which teachers express values. One such investigation was made by Harper,¹¹ who canvassed the social beliefs and attitudes of 2,900 educators, mostly teachers. He based his study on a test of 71 propositions with two possible responses—Agree and Disagree. The test yielded evaluations of educators on the basis of conservative-liberal-radical classifications, indicating that they were generally conservative.

Another study, employing the checklist technique, as utilized in the present investigation, was carried on by Hartman¹² in 1937. He canvassed the social attitudes on public problems which high-school teachers possess by using a three-part test given to 3,700 teachers. The latter were scored in accord with a liberalism-conservatism key, and again the teachers proved predominantly conservative.

¹⁰ Anna F. Miller, "Practices in the Guidance of High-School Students in the Election of Commercial Subjects." (Master of Arts Thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1932.)

¹¹ Manly H. Harper, *Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American Educators*, Teachers College, Columbia Contributions to Education, No. 294. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1927.

¹² George W. Hartman, "The Social Attitudes and Information of American Teachers," *The Teacher and Society*, First Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, Chapter VIII. New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1937.

The technique of assaying opinion-value of teachers was later utilized by Antell.¹³ Using a twenty-point questionnaire in 1945, he inventoried 200 teachers in New York City on their understanding of child growth and their acceptance or rejection of fundamental educational principles. One of his major findings indicated that teachers follow the normal curve of distribution regarding the number of educational understandings which they possess, and that three-fourths of them are amenable to intelligent and practical supervisory programs. An important outcome of his study was the derivation of principles used in guiding the in-service training of teachers.

Perhaps the study which comes closest to the theme of this presentation, both as to the technique employed and the general purpose of the research, was the one conducted by Engle¹⁴ in 1952. He sent a questionnaire to 453 high school teachers of psychology in 26 states, requesting that they administer a rating scale to the pupils in their psychology classes. With his questionnaire and five-point rating scale, he attempted to learn something of the attitudes of teachers and pupils toward a high-school course in psychology in terms of ten objectives of secondary education. In his scale, the value of five represented the greatest contribution and the value of one, the least, as far as any one statement's contribution to the objectives of education was concerned. One of the major findings of this study was that the mean rating for teachers was 3.52—which meant that psychology, as a subject in the high-school curriculum, contributes about the same as most other subjects.

Another writer who was concerned with appraising teachers' opinion-values was McWilliams¹⁵ in 1955. He made a survey of the opinions of 201 teachers in five senior high schools relative to the aims and objectives of secondary education. He established a list of concepts based upon outstanding statements of these aims and objectives. His items consisted of multiple choice and Agree-Disagree types. Responses by teachers, recorded in percentages, showed that teachers had a fairly adequate understanding of the nature of youth in their schools, although they did not feel that the school has a responsibility toward those youth who do not fit into the present school program.

The lack of research in this area of secondary education would seem to indicate the need for a study of the values which home-room teachers ascribe to the various high-school subjects. Do teachers really know the values to be found in the various high-school subjects, as these subjects make their contributions to the major objectives of secondary education?

The problem of home-room teachers' knowledge of subject values is

¹³ Henry Antell, "An Inventory of Teacher Understandings as a Guide Toward Their Improvement in Service," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XII, 1945, Pp. 359-366.

¹⁴ T. L. Engle, "Attitudes of Teachers Toward a High-School Course in Psychology," *National Association of Secondary-School Principals Bulletin*, 36, January 1952, Pp. 145-151.

¹⁵ Earl M. McWilliams, "A Survey of the Opinions of Pittsburgh Senior High-School Teachers on the Aims and Objectives of Secondary Education." (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1955.)

complicated by reason of the fact that they may possibly be clinging to prejudices regarding their own particular subject of specialization. Scattered information and hearsay tell us that the educational and vocational values to be found in school subjects outside the teacher's specialty are often unknown. This may be because of the blind spots resulting from the elective system which has characterized the education of the teachers, or because teachers as a whole make little or no effort to understand what other subject teachers are attempting to achieve in their respective fields. Whatever else may be involved, the truth persists that we lack an integrated body of research in public education concerning the relationship between subject matter and the major objectives of secondary education.

A Survey of Special Provisions for the Education of Academically Superior Students

MORRIS J. APPLBAUM

CURRENTLY, there has been an increasing amount of interest in the education of the gifted. More and more, the gifted are being studied, analyzed, and surveyed. The growth of interest in the gifted in recent years has been so pronounced that hardly a day goes by without the appearance of some item of importance on the subject in a newspaper, magazine, or book to serve as constant reminders of the gifted, who are referred to as neglected students. Interest in developing the full potential of the gifted has become more intensified with the advancement made in missile development and the exploration of outer space. The development of the gifted to their highest capacities would not only help meet the ever-increasing demand for trained leadership in our world which is becoming more and more complex, but it would, at the same time, reduce the frustration experienced by many of the superior high-school students for whom the present educational programs fail to provide an adequate challenge.

In 1955, the National Merit Scholarship Corporation was formed for the purpose of discovering throughout the country the ablest youth and to make it possible for these young talented people to get a college education regardless of their financial situation, as well as to make it possible for business and industry to contribute to the support of higher education. For the first time in September 1955, the National Merit Scholarship Corporation made it possible for all secondary schools in the United States and its possessions to participate in a national search for academically superior students. Some 10,338 schools selected the ranking five per cent of their students. These students were then permitted to take preliminary screening tests on October 26, 1955. A total of 58,158 students took this test. On the basis of this test, 5,078 survived as semi-finalists. These 5,078 were then permitted to take a final scholastic aptitude test on January 14, 1956. Of these, 556 were designated as "Scholars" and 4,330 were designated as "Certificate of Merit Winners." According to the National Merit Scholarship Corporation, these Merit Winners were of the same caliber as the Scholars. They

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ranked in ability among the top one or two per cent of the high-school seniors of the nation.

This article is based on a questionnaire sent to each of 2,804 Merit Winners in the 1956 competition and a comparable questionnaire sent to each of 2,456 principals of schools throughout the United States and its possessions attended by the Merit Winners. Sixty-seven per cent, or 1,879 Merit Winners, and 45 per cent, or 1,063 principals, responded to the questionnaires. The entire study is based on the response to these questionnaires.

The students' questionnaire consisted of three parts. Part I contained ten questions calling for personal data. Part II contained twenty-seven questions, each suggesting a specific practice which might be used in making special provisions for the students. The student respondents were requested to rate each of the twenty-seven practices in terms of how persistently the practice was utilized in their high schools, in terms of how successful the practice was when utilized, and, finally, in terms of how valuable they thought the practice would be, without regard for the use which was made of the practice. This last one was a theoretical or hypothetical evaluation. Part III consisted of three questions. The Merit Winners were asked to enumerate special provisions their high schools had made for them, special provisions they would recommend for future gifted students, and community agencies that helped them most during their high-school years.

The principals' questionnaire consisted of only two parts. Part I consisted of thirty-seven questions suggesting thirty-seven practices pertaining to special provisions for gifted students. Twenty-four questions corresponded to those appearing on the student questionnaire, the remaining thirteen dealing with administrative practices. Part II consisted of four questions. Question one asked the principal to indicate the procedures employed in his school in identifying the gifted; question two asked for the special provisions made by the school for the education of the gifted; question three asked for a list of special provisions the principal would like to introduce if conditions permitted; and question four asked for the number of gifted students in the respondent's school during the 1955-1956 school year. Like the Merit Winners, the principals were asked in Part I to evaluate the practices in three ways—according to how persistently each practice was utilized, according to the success with which each practice was utilized, and according to how valuable each practice would be theoretically.

From the general information provided by the student-respondents, the following may be learned about the 1956 Merit Certificate Winners who participated in this study:

1. Most of them (about 90 per cent) were over seventeen years old when they were graduated from high school.
2. Almost all of them (97 per cent) were attending college when the questionnaires were returned by them.

3. They showed interest in twenty-seven different careers, as follows: engineering, 23.7 per cent; science, 19.2 per cent; liberal arts, 9.5 per cent; teaching, 9.2 per cent; medicine and dentistry, 7.8 per cent; mathematics, 3.7 per cent; business, 2.5 per cent; government and foreign service, 2.4 per cent; ministry, 2.1 per cent; law, 2 per cent; miscellaneous, 8.7 per cent; undecided, 7.4 per cent; no response, 1.3 per cent.

4. More than 75 per cent were offered scholarships by colleges or scholarship granting organizations (exclusive of the Merit Scholarship Corporation).

5. Eighty-one per cent were not accelerated during their elementary-school years.

6. Ninety per cent were not accelerated during their junior and senior high-school years; it took them six years to complete grades 6-12.

7. Sixty per cent at some time during their high-school years held class or school offices.

8. Ninety-eight per cent participated in a variety of extracurricular, or cocurricular activities.

9. Forty-five per cent participated in one or more interscholastic teams.

Since twenty-four questions on both the students' and the principals' questionnaires dealt with identical practices, it is possible to compare the responses of students and principals. Table I provides the necessary data. The responses to each of the twenty-four practices may be interpreted as follows: by consulting item one in Table I, one notes that 20.9 per cent students against 45.9 per cent principals indicated that provisions for the identification of the gifted were made to a considerable extent in their respective schools; 47 per cent students against 35.5 per cent principals indicated that provisions were made to a moderate extent; 30.9 per cent students against 8.4 per cent principals indicated that very little or no provisions for identifying the gifted were made, and 1.2 per cent students against 9.2 per cent principals did not respond.

Similarly, the degree of success with which the practice was utilized may be derived from Table I as follows: 23.5 per cent students against 38.9 per cent principals reported that the practice was very successful; 47.3 per cent students against 43.4 per cent principals reported that the practice was moderately successful; 23.6 per cent students against 6.5 per cent principals reported that the practice was unsuccessful, or successful to a very limited degree, and 5.7 per cent students against 11.2 per cent principals did not evaluate the practice in terms of how successful it was.

Finally, from this table can be learned how the Merit Winners and their principals evaluated the practice theoretically. In other words, the respondents indicated how valuable they thought the practice would be if it were utilized. That the practice of identifying the gifted would be of considerable value was indicated by 81.1 per cent students against 68.5 per cent principals; that it would be of moderate value was indicated by 15.3 per cent students against 19.4 per cent principals; that it would be of little or no value was indicated by 2.1 per cent students against

2.9 per cent principals. Those who did not evaluate the practice hypothetically constituted 1.5 per cent of the student respondents and 9.2 per cent of the principals. The interpretation of the responses to the remaining twenty-three questions may be similarly derived from Table I.

In determining whether a particular practice would merit consideration, an examination of the *negative* responses of both principals and Merit Winners would be of considerable value. For example, it will be noted that 8.4 per cent principals against 30.9 per cent students reported that the practice of identifying the gifted was utilized very little, or not at all. Yet, only 2.1 per cent students and 2.9 per cent principals indicated that the practice would be of little or no value.

The following is a summary of the negative responses to each of the special provisions to which both principals and students responded:

1. That the practice of identifying the gifted was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 8.4 per cent principals and 30.9 per cent students; that it would be of little or no value was indicated by 2.1 per cent students and 2.9 per cent principals.

2. That the practice of calling in local experts in special fields in which gifted students are often interested was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 37.1 per cent principals and 59.7 per cent students; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 3.8 per cent students and 7.2 per cent principals.

3. That the practice of having the gifted participate in the planning of their programs was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 60 per cent students and 50.9 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 20.7 per cent principals and 11.2 per cent students.

4. That the practice of having gifted students participate in the administration of the school was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 39.1 per cent students and 36.6 per cent principals; that the practice was of little or no value was indicated by 22.8 per cent principals and 15.7 per cent students.

5. That the practice of exempting gifted students from final examinations was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 76.2 per cent students and 75.7 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 59.5 per cent principals and 56.4 per cent students.

6. That the practice of having gifted students assist other learners was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 49.1 per cent students and 23.0 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 10.5 per cent students and 9.6 per cent principals.

7. That the practice of excusing gifted students from some required courses was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 90.3 per cent students and 80.2 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 41 per cent principals and 21.5 per cent students.

8. That the practice of providing fewer study halls for the gifted was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 54.5 per cent students and 29.4 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 15.1 per cent students and 12.6 per cent principals.

9. That the practice of grouping students for all classes was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 73 per cent students and 62.7 per cent

TABLE I—Evaluation of Practice by 1,879 Students and 1,063 Principals

Practice	In Terms of How Often or How Persistently It Was Utilized					In Terms of How Successful It Was					Theoretical Evaluation					
	Percentage of Students (S) and of Principals (P) Responding					Percentage of Students (S) and of Principals (P) Responding					Percentage of Students (S) and of Principals (P) Responding					
	A	B	C	NR	Total	A	B	C	NR	Total	A	B	C	NR	Total	
1. Provision for identification.....	S	20.9	47.0	30.9	1.2	100	23.5	47.3	23.6	5.7	100	81.1	15.3	2.1	1.5	100
2. Outside experts in special fields.....	P	45.9	36.5	8.4	9.2	100	38.9	43.4	6.5	11.2	100	68.5	19.4	2.9	9.2	100
3. Student participation in planning own program.....	P	14.3	40.1	37.1	8.6	100	16.1	32.0	44.2	7.7	100	51.4	30.1	7.2	11.3	100
4. Student participation in administration.....	P	10.8	27.7	60.0	1.4	100	15.6	40.5	27.1	16.7	100	46.9	40.1	11.2	1.8	100
5. Exemption from final examinations.....	P	8.3	31.2	50.9	9.6	100	10.4	32.5	37.0	20.0	100	22.9	43.6	20.7	12.9	100
6. Gifted assist other learners....	P	21.8	37.0	39.1	2.1	100	29.4	34.1	27.8	8.7	100	39.0	43.6	15.7	1.7	100
7. Excuse from some required courses.....	P	15.5	38.4	36.6	9.5	100	17.0	39.7	25.2	18.0	100	22.0	42.8	22.8	12.4	100
8. Fewer study halls for gifted....	S	11.6	9.6	76.2	2.6	100	18.2	13.0	51.9	16.9	100	17.5	24.0	56.4	2.2	100
9. Grouping for all classes.....	P	8.8	5.9	75.7	9.5	100	14.1	10.0	50.6	25.3	100	39.7	47.8	10.5	2.0	100
10. Grouping for some classes....	P	7.0	41.9	49.1	1.9	100	16.8	39.9	34.3	9.0	100	38.7	45.8	9.6	12.6	100
11. Grouping within the classroom.....	P	14.5	52.1	23.0	10.4	100	17.0	50.9	17.0	15.1	100	33.2	44.6	9.6	12.6	100
12. More time to less able.....	P	1.7	6.4	90.3	1.6	100	8.9	12.9	60.1	18.0	100	37.5	39.0	21.5	2.0	100
13. More time to gifted.....	P	2.6	8.2	80.2	9.0	100	7.7	13.7	50.5	28.0	100	13.8	27.8	41.0	17.4	100
14. Better teachers for gifted....	P	18.5	23.2	54.5	3.8	100	24.3	24.5	38.0	13.2	100	48.0	33.6	15.1	3.3	100
15. Excuse from some required courses.....	P	31.5	29.1	29.4	10.0	100	33.8	30.0	17.9	18.3	100	45.5	27.4	12.6	14.5	100
16. Fewer study halls for gifted....	P	6.7	18.5	73.0	1.8	100	19.8	18.4	47.5	14.3	100	60.0	27.5	10.7	1.8	100
17. Grouping for all classes.....	P	7.4	20.8	62.7	9.1	100	13.2	23.9	40.5	22.4	100	22.7	33.8	28.9	14.7	100
18. Grouping for some classes....	S	21.2	28.3	46.6	3.8	100	30.5	25.3	32.9	11.2	100	60.2	29.7	6.2	3.8	100
19. Grouping within the classroom.....	P	30.5	27.1	27.2	15.2	100	29.9	30.9	18.4	20.8	100	43.7	28.0	10.3	17.9	100
20. More time to less able.....	P	1.5	17.9	79.4	1.2	100	10.4	23.4	52.2	14.0	100	41.5	41.8	15.0	1.7	100
21. More time to gifted.....	P	11.6	48.6	29.8	10.0	100	16.0	47.5	20.5	16.0	100	38.6	39.7	9.2	12.5	100
22. Better teachers for gifted....	P	37.6	42.1	17.3	3.0	100	11.1	56.7	26.6	5.5	100	14.6	50.7	31.9	2.8	100
23. More time to less able.....	P	20.6	40.6	24.6	14.1	100	9.1	43.8	27.7	19.4	100	8.2	37.3	37.7	16.7	100
24. More time to gifted.....	P	2.3	30.7	64.4	2.6	100	13.1	38.1	37.8	11.0	100	24.7	48.0	24.3	3.0	100
25. More time to gifted.....	P	2.4	33.8	50.2	13.5	100	5.3	38.2	32.7	23.8	100	20.5	41.3	19.8	18.4	100
26. Better teachers for gifted....	P	6.7	15.0	76.5	1.9	100	19.3	15.1	51.8	13.8	100	52.2	25.2	20.2	2.4	100
27. Better teachers for gifted....	P	17.6	25.0	47.8	9.6	100	20.5	27.9	31.6	19.9	100	46.0	24.8	15.6	13.5	100

15. Advanced courses on an elective basis.....	S	25.3	36.1	37.4	1.2	100	41.5	24.8	26.1	7.6	100	89.5	8.6	0.9	1.1	100
16. Encourage the development of hobbies.....	P	42.1	29.0	18.1	10.9	100	42.3	29.8	12.2	15.6	100	66.0	18.3	3.4	12.2	100
17. Develop in fields other than those of required subjects...	S	16.0	36.5	46.6	1.0	100	17.1	37.5	38.0	7.5	100	54.8	38.1	6.0	1.1	100
18. Seminar groups.....	P	25.3	44.7	19.8	10.3	100	21.5	49.5	13.9	15.1	100	58.2	25.8	4.0	11.9	100
19. Independent study and research.....	S	26.4	42.2	30.0	1.4	100	26.3	43.1	23.3	6.3	100	60.2	33.3	4.9	1.5	100
20. Differentiated home work.....	P	33.6	44.0	12.7	9.7	100	26.9	51.0	9.5	12.6	100	55.5	30.5	3.7	10.3	100
21. Assistants in laboratory and library.....	S	4.6	10.4	83.7	1.3	100	12.1	13.4	58.4	16.2	100	63.3	30.5	3.9	2.2	100
22. Participation in more extra-curricular activities.....	P	6.4	15.6	68.3	9.7	100	8.9	17.8	48.4	24.9	100	48.3	25.2	11.5	15.0	100
23. Complete high school in fewer years.....	S	15.1	39.9	43.4	1.6	100	20.9	36.9	34.8	7.3	100	80.7	16.5	1.3	1.4	100
24. Enriched reading.....	P	38.0	44.7	8.0	9.3	100	32.1	48.7	8.1	11.1	100	73.2	15.7	1.1	9.8	100
	S	2.4	13.6	85.1	0.9	100	10.8	19.2	55.0	15.0	100	42.4	42.1	13.6	1.9	100
	P	20.4	43.2	27.7	8.7	100	21.5	43.8	18.6	16.0	100	53.6	28.0	5.9	12.4	100
	S	11.9	38.5	47.9	1.7	100	20.1	36.1	34.6	9.1	100	44.0	44.3	10.1	1.6	100
	P	29.1	42.8	18.3	9.9	100	30.7	42.4	12.0	14.9	100	54.7	28.8	5.2	11.4	100
	S	16.8	29.9	51.3	2.1	100	22.5	30.9	34.8	11.8	100	29.3	46.2	22.8	1.8	100
	P	26.4	30.8	32.5	10.3	100	26.6	33.5	21.4	18.5	100	34.7	32.6	19.3	13.4	100
	S	6.4	16.6	75.1	1.9	100	11.4	20.3	53.2	15.1	100	25.4	36.0	36.5	2.1	100
	P	7.3	15.8	67.5	9.3	100	12.5	19.3	45.0	23.2	100	15.5	28.1	41.7	14.7	100
	S	4.5	19.2	74.8	1.5	100	12.6	21.3	51.6	14.5	100	54.2	28.6	15.4	1.9	100
	P	33.3	36.4	20.1	10.2	100	30.8	40.8	13.5	15.0	100	64.5	17.1	6.4	11.9	100

Legend		Legend		Legend	
A—utilized to a considerable extent		A—very successful		A—of considerable value	
B—utilized to a moderate extent		B—moderately successful		B—of moderate value	
C—utilized very little or not at all		C—unsuccessful, or successful to a very limited degree		C—of little or no value	
NR—no response		NR—no response		NR—no response	
S—students (Merit Winners)		S—students (Merit Winners)		S—students (Merit Winners)	Certificate
P—principals		P—principals		P—principals	

principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 28.9 per cent principals and 10.7 per cent students.

10. That the practice of grouping students for some classes was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 46.6 per cent students and 27.2 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 10.3 per cent principals and 6.2 per cent students.

11. That the practice of grouping students within the classroom for some aspects of the work was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 79.4 per cent students and 29.8 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 15 per cent students and 9.2 per cent principals.

12. That the practice of devoting more time to the less able students was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 24.6 per cent principals and 17.3 per cent students; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 37.7 per cent principals and 31.9 per cent students.

13. That the practice of devoting more time to the gifted than to other students was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 64.4 per cent students and 50.2 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 24.3 per cent students and 19.8 per cent principals.

14. That the practice of providing better teachers for the gifted than for other students was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 76.5 per cent students and 47.8 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 20.2 per cent students and 15.6 per cent principals.

15. That the practice of providing advanced courses on an elective basis was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 37.4 per cent students and 18.1 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 3.4 per cent principals and .9 of one per cent students.

16. That the practice of encouraging the gifted to develop hobbies which relate to their interests and abilities was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 46.6 per cent students and 19.8 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 6 per cent students and 4 per cent principals.

17. That the practice of encouraging the gifted to develop themselves in fields other than those of required subject matter was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 30 per cent students and 12.7 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 4.9 per cent students and 3.7 per cent principals.

18. That the practice of providing seminar groups for the gifted was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 83.7 per cent students and 68.3 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 11.5 per cent principals and 3.9 per cent students.

19. That the practice of encouraging the gifted to do independent research and study was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 43.4 per cent students and 8 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 1.3 per cent students and 1.1 per cent principals.

20. That the practice of providing differentiated homework for the gifted was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 83.1 per cent students and 27.7 per cent principals; that it would be of little or no value was indicated by 13.6 per cent students and 5.9 per cent principals.

21. That the practice of providing opportunities for the gifted to serve as assistants in laboratories, libraries, or classrooms was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 47.9 per cent students and 18.3 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 10.1 per cent students and 5.2 per cent principals.

22. That the practice of permitting the gifted to participate in more extra-curricular activities than other students was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 51.3 per cent students and 32.5 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 22.8 per cent students and 19.3 per cent principals.

23. That the practice of permitting the gifted to complete high school in fewer than the usual number of years was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 75.1 per cent students and 67.5 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 41.7 per cent principals and 36.5 per cent students.

24. That the practice of providing a wider variety of reading materials for the gifted than is provided for the less able was utilized very little or not at all was reported by 74.8 per cent students and 20.1 per cent principals; that the practice would be of little or no value was indicated by 15.4 per cent students and 6.4 per cent principals.

Table II shows the responses of the principals to thirteen questions on the questionnaire which dealt with administrative practices that might be utilized in the education of the gifted; these questions were not included in the students' questionnaire. Similarly, Table III shows the responses of Merit Winners to three questions which did not appear on the principals' questionnaire.

From the reports given by the principals on the methods employed in their respective schools to identify the gifted, it can be concluded that the procedures vary from school to school. Testing of one kind or another was mentioned most frequently; it was listed 1,108 times and constituted 35 per cent of the responses, not including the 409, or 12.9 per cent, that specifically included intelligence testing. Among the tests mentioned were: reading, mathematics, scholastic aptitude, psychological, science, and personality.

Another frequently mentioned criterion utilized in the selection of the gifted was teacher recommendation, judgment, and opinion. Thirteen and one tenth per cent of the responses, or 417, were included in this category. Cumulative records, or past performance, was listed by 176, or 5.5 per cent. One hundred eleven principals reported counselor recommendation as a criterion, and 103 reported general observation. Frequently listed were marks and performance in class; these were mentioned by 372 principals. Some of the other methods mentioned were: (a) interviews; (b) eighth-grade records and records from elementary and junior high schools; (c) standing on honor roll; (d) rank in class; (e) conferences with parents; (f) appraisal by psychologist; (g) extra-curricular activities; (h) recommendation by sending school; (i) recom-

TABLE II—Evaluation of Practice by Principals (6063)

Practice	In Terms of How Often or How Persistently It Was Used					In Terms of Its Success When It Was Utilized					Theoretical Evaluation (Evaluation of the Practice Without Regard for the Use Which Was Made of It)				
	Percentage of Principals Responding					Percentage of Principals Responding					Percentage of Principals Responding				
	A	B	C	NR	Total	A	B	C	NR	Total	A	B	C	NR	Total
1. A policy for the education of the gifted.....	15.3	49.2	28.0	7.4	100	17.4	50.5	16.4	15.7	100	62.7	23.5	4.1	9.6	100
2. A special guidance and counseling program.....	15.3	41.6	34.3	8.7	100	16.0	45.6	20.0	18.3	100	55.4	25.1	7.9	11.6	100
3. Special equipment.....	7.0	25.3	59.5	8.3	100	8.7	28.0	39.8	23.5	100	41.2	33.8	12.3	12.7	100
4. Special budgetary provisions.....	2.8	10.2	78.3	8.7	100	4.2	13.3	54.4	28.1	100	36.1	30.5	18.7	14.7	100
5. Different system of marking.....	6.3	16.5	69.0	8.3	100	8.1	22.8	43.9	25.2	100	20.6	30.5	34.4	14.5	100
6. Special articulation between the junior high and high school.....	17.4	29.4	41.4	11.8	100	16.1	31.1	29.7	23.0	100	51.4	24.1	9.1	15.4	100
7. Special articulation between high school and colleges.....	14.4	38.5	39.0	8.1	100	15.1	39.0	27.9	18.0	100	50.7	29.1	8.4	11.9	100
8. Participation in the College Entrance Examination Board Advanced Placement Program (CEEB).....	31.0	19.4	39.6	10.0	100	27.1	24.1	26.7	22.1	100	43.8	32.3	10.4	13.5	100
9. Providing educational experiences through community agencies.....	10.7	36.1	45.5	7.6	100	11.9	37.7	31.9	18.4	100	39.1	37.5	10.8	12.5	100
10. Encouraging community service groups to provide financial assistance to gifted.....	25.2	39.1	26.3	9.3	100	20.0	42.4	21.9	15.6	100	58.1	23.4	7.1	11.3	100
11. Providing the teachers with additional time to prepare for the teaching of the gifted.....	1.7	7.9	81.0	9.4	100	3.4	13.4	57.3	26.0	100	32.7	29.5	22.3	15.4	100
12. Special in-service program for teachers of the gifted.....	2.1	8.7	80.2	9.1	100	2.8	13.1	56.4	27.7	100	37.3	28.1	18.2	16.5	100
13. Special consultant services for teachers of the gifted.....	5.4	15.8	66.8	12.0	100	6.3	18.6	47.7	27.4	100	38.7	30.9	13.2	17.3	100

Legend

A—utilized to a considerable extent
 B—utilized to a moderate extent
 C—utilized very little or not at all
 NR—no response

Legend

A—very successful
 B—moderately successful
 C—unsuccessful, or successful to a very limited degree
 NR—no response

Legend

A—of considerable value
 B—of moderate value
 C—of little or no value
 NR—No response

TABLE III—Evaluation of Practice by Students (1,879)

<i>Practice</i>	<i>In Terms of How Often or How Persistently It Was Used</i>					<i>In Terms of Its Success When It Was Utilized</i>					<i>Theoretical Evaluation (Evaluation of the Practice Without Regard for the Use Which Was Made of It)</i>				
	<i>Percentage of Students Responding</i>					<i>Percentage of Students Responding</i>					<i>Percentage of Students Responding</i>				
	A	B	C	NR	Total	A	B	C	NR	Total	A	B	C	NR	Total
Using different methods in teaching able students than those used in teaching average or poor students Busy work Motivation to work to full capacity through such means as encouraging the obtaining of patents, and displaying outstanding work	10.1	39.3	48.7	1.8	100	23.9	32.5	33.2	10.5	100	67.9	26.6	3.9	1.6	100
	21.5	36.7	33.3	8.5	100	7.1	25.0	53.8	14.2	100	9.5	19.5	62.3	8.7	100
	12.2	35.8	50.6	1.4	100	18.7	34.5	38.2	8.5	100	67.4	27.9	3.1	1.5	100
	<i>Legend</i>					<i>Legend</i>					<i>Legend</i>				
	A—utilized to a considerable extent					A—very successful					A—of considerable value				
	B—utilized to a moderate extent					B—moderately successful					B—of moderate value				
	C—utilized very little or not at all					C—unsuccessful, or successful to a very limited degree					C—of little or no value				
	NR—no response					NR—no response					NR—no response				

mentation by faculty committee on gifted; (j) leadership qualities; (k) student initiative; (l) student request; (m) scholastic average; (n) health. The study lists more than forty techniques reported by principals for use in the identification of the gifted. More than three thousand responses were given by the 1,063 principals who returned their questionnaires.

Of interest, too, is the fact that a number of the principals included the intelligence quotient that was needed before a student could be classified as gifted. The I.Q.'s. given ranged from 110 to 168.

On the questionnaire the principal was given an opportunity to speak freely about the existing and recommended special provisions. Table IV lists the special provisions now utilized in the education of the gifted. These do not include the thirty-seven practices suggested in the structured questions on the questionnaire. Table V lists the special provisions recommended by principals for future use in educating the gifted. Here, too, as in Table IV, the list does not include the practices that might have been suggested by the thirty-seven questions in the questionnaire.

TABLE IV—List of Special Provisions Now Utilized in the Education of the Gifted as Reported by 1,063 Principals

<i>Special Provisions</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>	<i>Percentage of Respondents</i>
Advanced courses on an elective basis; accelerated courses; honors courses; college preparatory courses	570	53.6
Heavier load	135	12.7
Special leadership opportunities	70	6.6
Different teaching methods through core, field trips, etc.	47	4.4
Special recognition and honors; membership in scholarship clubs and honor societies	51	4.8
Use of facilities in near-by colleges; extension courses; auditors in colleges	38	3.5
Individualized instruction	32	3.0
Special projects	32	3.0
Interschool and intraschool scholastic contests	29	2.7
More home, community, school understanding	7	.7
Providing special reading clinics and other remedial classes	7	.7
Providing work experiences	4	.4
Academic freedom; voluntary attendance	3	.3
After-school, evening, Saturday, and summer classes	3	.3
Completely different curriculum	3	.3
Correspondence courses	1	.1
School within a school	1	.1
Exchange students program	1	.1
None	92	8.6
No response	86	8.1
Practices listed that coincided with those suggested by 37 questions in questionnaire	2,311	—
Total number of free responses	2,701	—

TABLE V—List of Special Provisions Recommended by 1,063 Principals for Future Use In Educating the Gifted

<i>Special Provisions</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>	<i>Percentage of Respondents</i>
Advanced courses; college level courses; honors courses; accelerated courses; correspondence courses; creative writing courses; college preparatory courses	453	42.5
Smaller classes	111	10.4
Special field trips	25	2.4
Academic freedom	23	2.3
Special projects	19	1.8
Individualized instruction	19	1.8
Remedial work in all areas where the gifted show deficiencies; e.g., reading, writing, mathematics	10	.9
Special recognition and honors; membership in scholarship clubs and honor societies	10	.9
Leadership training	10	.9
Heavier load	9	.8
College style programming	7	.7
Special high school for gifted	7	.7
Use of facilities in near-by colleges; extension courses; auditors in colleges	6	.6
Completely different curriculum	6	.6
Creation of better climate between gifted and other students	5	.5
More rigid control of program for gifted	5	.5
Work experiences	5	.5
More remuneration for teachers of gifted	4	.4
After-school, evening, Saturday, and summer classes	3	.3
Permitting of fewer electives	3	.3
Longer school day	2	.2
Experts to approve courses of study for gifted	1	.1
Reducing load for gifted	1	.1
Consolidating several schools to provide larger number of gifted in any one school	1	.1
None	36	3.4
No response	176	16.6
Practices listed that coincided with those suggested by 37 questions in questionnaire	2,220	—
Total number of free responses	2,613	—

Like the preceding two tables, the following two tables (Table VI and Table VII) give the free responses of the Merit Certificate Winners to the two questions pertaining to the special provisions now utilized in the education of the gifted and those recommended for future use. Here too, as in the case of the principals' responses, practices suggested by the 27 structured questions in the questionnaire are not enumerated in detail as they were in the study proper. It is interesting to note that thirty of the practices reported by the principals as being utilized now were not included in the responses of the students. The students, however, recommended 69 practices, or seven more than were recommended by the principals.

TABLE VI—List of Special Provisions Now Utilized in Education of Gifted as Reported by 1,879 Merit Certificate Winners

<i>Special Provisions</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>	<i>Percentage of Respondents</i>
Advanced courses on an elective basis	660	35.1
Special guidance	447	23.8
Relaxed class attendance	111	5.9
Special recognition and honors	99	5.3
Substitute teaching	24	1.3
Permission to choose their own teachers	8	.4
Providing opportunities for critical thinking	7	.4
Special equipment	5	.3
None	585	31.0
No response	62	3.3
Practices listed that coincided with those suggested by 27 questions in questionnaire	1,016	—
Total number of free responses	2,962	—

The Certificate of Merit Winners were asked to list the community agencies that helped them most during their high school years. The responses to this question are given in Table VIII. Of significance in this table is that 547, or 29.1 per cent, of the Merit Certificate Winners indicated that there were no community agencies that helped them during their high-school years. Those who gave no response to this question numbered 353, or 18.7 per cent. Three hundred seventy-six, or 19.9 per cent, listed churches and synagogues. Local libraries were listed by 150, or 8 per cent. One hundred eleven, or 6 per cent, mentioned American Legion, and American Legion Auxiliary.

The large number of responses to the questionnaires—67 per cent Merit Certificate Winners and 45 per cent principals—and the care with which the questionnaires were filled out, together with the numerous unsolicited letters and comments accompanying the responses, attest to the fact that the principals and the academically superior students who participated in this study were genuinely interested in the improvement of the educational programs for the gifted. When the Merit Certificate Winners received the questionnaires, they were already attending colleges; yet they took the time to respond to the questions pertaining to the education of able students.

In view of the fact that the special provisions discussed in the study had been dealt with individually, and the responses to each question had been tabulated in great detail, for purposes of concluding the findings and bringing them down to simpler form, the practices referred to in the study were regrouped in the last chapter of the study into six major headings; namely, Enrichment, Grouping, Acceleration, Electives, Special Guidance, and Administrative Practices.

TABLE VII—Special Provisions Recommended by Merit Certificate Winners for Future Use In Educating the Gifted

<i>Special Provisions</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>	<i>Percentage of Respondents</i>
Advanced courses; college level courses; honors courses; special courses; accelerated courses; correspondence courses; college prep courses	1,082	57.4
Acceleration in class work	127	6.8
Freedom in laboratories	94	5.0
Improved teaching of tool subjects	86	4.5
Heavier load	67	3.5
Special recognition and honors; membership in scholarship clubs and scholarship societies	66	3.5
Opportunities for critical thinking	52	2.7
Special projects	51	2.7
Smaller classes	47	2.5
Elimination of busy work	41	2.1
Providing more motivation; greater stimulation; greater challenge; more encouragement	36	1.9
Relaxed classroom attendance	23	1.2
Intraschool and interschool scholastic competitions	23	1.2
Identification of specially talented among gifted	22	1.1
Special field trips	21	1.1
Providing subject matter clubs; e.g., mathematics, science, language, etc.	19	1.0
Substitute teaching	10	.5
Permission to choose their own teachers	10	.5
Improving testing procedures	10	.5
Work experience	8	.4
Leadership training	8	.4
Creation of better climate between gifted and others	8	.4
More rigid requirements for graduation	7	.3
More flexibility in programming	6	.3
Special high school for gifted	6	.3
Emphasis on required courses	6	.3
Shorter school day	5	.2
No attendance for gifted	5	.2
Use of facilities in near-by colleges; extension courses; auditors in college	5	.2
Special instruction in spiritual values	3	.1
Longer school day	3	.1
School within a school	2	.1
Opportunity for specialization	2	.1
De-emphasis on homework	1	.1
Student exchange program	1	.1
Providing creative work	1	.1
De-emphasis of extracurricular activities	1	.1
Shorter class periods	1	.1
None	90	4.8
No response	73	3.9
Practices listed that coincided with those suggested by 27 questions in questionnaire	3,273	—
Total number of free responses	5,402	—

TABLE VIII—Community Agencies Playing an Important Role in the Education of 1,879 Merit Certificate Winners

<i>Community Agencies</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>	<i>Percentage of Respondents</i>
<i>National Youth-Serving Organizations</i>		
Boy Scouts of America	113	6.1
American Legion and American Legion Auxiliary	111	6.0
Rotary, International	74	3.9
Kiwanis, International	71	3.8
Young Men's Christian Association and Hi-Y, Tri-Hi	66	3.5
Lions, International	48	2.6
Girl Scouts of the U.S.A.	33	1.8
Elks, Benevolent and Protective Order of	30	1.6
4-H Clubs	30	1.6
De-Molay, Order of	28	1.5
American Junior Red Cross	25	1.3
Knights of Columbus	15	.8
Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States	14	.8
Young Women's Christian Association	14	.8
B'nai B'rith	9	.5
Optimist, International	9	.5
American Association for the United Nations	6	.3
American Association of University Women	5	.3
Daughters of the American Revolution	5	.3
Zionist Organization of America	3	.2
National Grange	3	.2
Alcoholics Anonymous	2	.1
Independent Order of Odd Fellows	2	.1
Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Association	2	.1
League of Women Voters of the United States	2	.1
National Conference of Christians and Jews	2	.1
Miscellaneous	47	2.6
Churches and Synagogues	376	19.9
<i>Local Business and Industrial Organizations</i>		
Chamber of Commerce	41	2.2
Newspapers and Publishers	20	1.0
Local Industries	14	.8
Banks	9	.5
Labor Unions	3	.2
Miscellaneous	9	.5
<i>School Community Groups</i>		
Parent Teachers Associations	31	1.6
Local Universities	21	1.1
Junior Achievement	16	.9
Miscellaneous	12	.6
<i>Civic Agencies</i>		
Local Libraries	150	8.0
Museums	15	.8
Radio and Television Stations	11	.6
Recreation Departments	8	.4
Civilian Defense	7	.3
Public Bands and Orchestras	6	.3
Employment Agencies	5	.3
Theaters	5	.3
Transportation	3	.2
Health Services	2	.1
Miscellaneous (Police, hospitals, fire departments, city administrations, etc.)	44	2.3
None	547	29.1
No response	353	18.7
Total number of free responses	2,477	—

Recommendations for further study and investigation need to include practically all of the areas touched upon in the study. Even though the consensus appears to be that the gifted should be identified and provided for, there is no general agreement as to what techniques, or combination of techniques, best aid in the identification of the gifted, or as to what the best way of providing for the gifted would be, once they have been identified. Many questions still require further study, investigation, and experimentation. Among these questions are:

1. What combination of techniques for the identification of the gifted would permit the smallest number of able students to be left undiscovered, or undetected?
2. What can be done to bring about better understanding between the gifted students and other students in order to eliminate the dichotomy that frequently is evident between the two groups of students?
3. In what ways can the community be enlisted to aid in the educational program for the gifted?
4. How can the assistance of the parents be more fully enlisted in assuming their share of the responsibility in the education of their gifted children?
5. How can the proper articulation, as it pertains to the gifted, be accomplished among the various school units, particularly between the high schools and colleges?
6. What classroom techniques are most suitable in working with the gifted?
7. What factors cause the gifted to work below their potential?
8. What would be a reasonable budgetary allowance for the education of the gifted?
9. How can textbooks, instructional materials, and other aids specially utilized in the education of the gifted be evaluated?
10. What would be the most suitable motivation and stimulation for bringing about achievement consistent with ability?
11. What special training should be provided for teachers of the gifted to qualify them as teachers of the gifted?
12. What constitutes appropriate education for the gifted?
13. What is a suitable guidance and counseling program for the gifted?
14. What changes should be made in the system of marking as it pertains to the gifted, so as to raise the standards of the gifted and not jeopardize their college opportunities?
15. To what extent do colleges, teacher training institutions, and graduate schools offer appropriate courses for the training of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and guidance personnel who will be confronted with the problems of providing for the educational needs of the gifted?
16. How can the special provisions now utilized in the schools throughout the country as reported in this survey best be evaluated so as to ascertain their effectiveness in the education of the gifted?
17. What local, state, and national agencies should be established for the purpose of pooling information pertaining to suitable educational programs for the gifted and what lines of communication should be established so as to make information available to schools throughout the country?
18. How can the gifted themselves be made to assume some of the responsibility for improving the educational programs for the gifted?

From this survey, it would appear that both principals and academically superior students are aware of the urgency of the problem of educating the gifted. Although the special educational provisions included in the foregoing pages were by no means exhaustive, they were representative enough to show what is currently being done for the gifted throughout the nation, and what principals and academically superior students are recommending for the education of future students. A comparison of the existing practices with the recommended practices shows that students and principals alike want more of what is already being done for the gifted.

The fact that a vast majority of principals and students are not in favor of acceleration—of completing high school in less than the usual amount of time—is only another indication that gifted students want to remain in high school for the prescribed time, and that principals want to retain them, but that the gifted want to utilize their time profitably. This is evidenced by the fact that gifted students as well as their principals favor enrichment above all other special provisions. The analysis of the responses to the questionnaire shows that principals and academically superior students are conscious of the need for special educational provisions for the gifted. Although, for the most part, the responses reveal that a large number of students and principals feel that many of the practices suggested by the questionnaire would be of considerable value as part of the educational program for the gifted, these practices seem to be utilized by the schools only to a limited extent. The major problem confronting educators, therefore, is not so much *what* should be done for the gifted as *how* the special provisions recommended by principals and superior students should be implemented.

This is a propitious moment for implementing desirable educational provisions for the gifted. From this survey can be gleaned that a vast majority of those who participated in it accede to the desirability of identifying the gifted so that their educational needs can better be met, for, in meeting the educational needs of the gifted, the country's demand for more qualified leadership will also be fulfilled. More and more, the concept that education for all youth must be identical is being abandoned. Educators are now, more than ever, ready to accept the interpretation that equality of opportunity means the opportunity for all students to develop their potentialities to the full extent of their abilities.

As a result of recent developments, the lay public, as well as educators, are also ready to make modifications in the educational programs of all children and are placing greater emphasis on the education of the gifted. It is not difficult to see that the attitude towards education has taken on alarmist proportions. In fact, the education of the gifted specifically, and of all children, generally, is the number one item in the news. So much so has education become the most talked about subject that more and more lay people are considering themselves experts in the field of education. Wholesale recommendations are being made. These recom-

mendations go from one extreme to another. Some people advocate rigid disciplinary action to improve classroom decorum and attitudes; others recommend tranquilizers for over-active children. Some advocate the omission of the activities called extracurricular activities—sometimes referred to by critics as frills—that have so often stimulated students in general, and gifted students in particular, to activities that opened new vistas for them. Some are ready to abandon all the progress that has been made in education during the past half century; others are ready to adopt the Russian system of education.

Among the numerous "changes" in the educational system that are presently being proposed from various sources are: longer school day, longer school year, Saturday classes, summer school, elimination of "trivia," concentration on mathematics and science—at the expense of the humanities—acceleration, and so on. Many of these proposals are made without due regard for tryout, investigation, and study, and without due regard for the wishes of the gifted themselves and their principals. For example, there has been much talk about a longer school day. Yet, only two principals out of a total of 1,063 principals, and only three Merit Certificate Winners out of 1,879, recommended a longer school day as a special provision for the education of the gifted.

The quality of the education to be sought should be determined by the quality of students to be educated. This survey has shown that attempts are being made to identify able students and to make some special provisions for them. Included among these special provisions are practices that can be classified as grouping, advanced courses on an elective basis, enrichment, and guidance. However, there are still many able students who are not discovered early enough to enable them to profit from whatever provisions are made for other gifted students. In addition, although many schools are aware of the needs of the gifted and are making special provisions for their education, the amount that is being done does not appear to be adequate, as the firsthand reports of Merit Certificate Winners and their principals reveal. This *Survey* serves as a reference for principals who are interested in providing for the educational needs of the gifted, for the gifted who might be interested in finding out how their experiences compare with those of other gifted, and for teachers who may wish to acquaint themselves with what is being done for the gifted in schools other than their own. In addition, it may interest parents and other lay people who are becoming increasingly concerned about the special needs of the gifted.

Until there is a marked increase in the motivation, stimulation, and challenge of the gifted in a setting specifically created for them through special programs that take full cognizance of their presence, a large number of gifted will continue to be neglected and the country will continue to lose one of its most valuable assets—an intelligent, educated youth, fully equipped to assume the role of leadership in the world.

Report on the "Closed Campus"

LOUIS GRANT BRANDES

THE "closed campus" has been introduced by a number of California high schools during the lunch periods, before school, and after school as a means of providing closer supervision of pupils. The closed campus has been defined as the condition relative to the school grounds whereby pupils attending the school are not permitted to leave the school grounds from the time they arrive in the morning until the time they leave after the close of school in the afternoon, with certain exceptions.

The kinds of things that have led to giving consideration to a closed campus are as follows:

1. Pupils in cars coming and going from the school grounds; needless driving of cars about the community by pupils
2. Congregating of pupils on street corners and near houses of property owners, loud talk, vulgarity, and other nuisances created by congregating groups
3. Supervisory problems created by pupils frequenting places of business
4. Moral supervision of pupils by school officials while not on school grounds
5. Loitering of out-of-school youth with school youngsters in the vicinity of the school

To provide information for formulating policy on the two high schools of the Alameda Unified School District, a study of the closed campus was requested by the superintendent. No information on the subject could be found in the educational literature. Hence, a questionnaire was circulated.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

High schools including grades 9 through 12 or grades 10 through 12 and reporting enrollments of over 1,000 in the *California School Directory*, 1958-1959, were listed in order of appearance in the directory. There were 230 such schools. Approximately half of these schools, exclusive of the Alameda schools, were mailed a questionnaire. One hundred thirteen questionnaires were mailed on March 16, 1959. No follow-up requests were made. One hundred nine of the 113 questionnaires were completed and returned.

Do you consider that you have a closed campus at your school? Representatives of 56 schools reported *Yes*, 2 partially *Yes* (one closed for girls only; one closed for one of two lunch periods), and 51 reported *No*.

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Seventy-one of the 109 returns were reportedly completed by the principal, 29 by the vice principal, dean, or assistant principal, 2 by the student council adviser, and 1 by the student body president; 6 representatives did not indicate their authorship. Of the representatives responding *Yes*, 31 of the 56 returns were reportedly completed by the principal; of those reporting *No*, 40 of the 51 returns were reportedly completed by the principal. This latter observation might well indicate that principals of schools whose representatives responded *No* considered the closed campus of somewhat greater significance than did the principals of schools whose representatives responded *Yes*.

Enrollment as related to response. There was no apparent relation between the size of a school and a response of *Yes* or *No* to the previous question, with exception of schools with a reported enrollment of over 3,000. Of seven such schools, the representatives of 6 reported *Yes*, while one reported a partial *Yes* (closed for one of two lunch periods).

Type area as related to response. There was no apparent relation between the responses of school representatives as to open or closed campus and types of area reported (urban, semi-urban, or rural).

Location in state. A line formed by the southern boundaries of Inyo, Tulare, Kings, and Monterey Counties and the northern boundaries of San Louis Obispo, Kern, and San Bernadino Counties divides California into northern and southern sections. In the *northern section*, 38 schools were reported as having an open campus, 1 a closed campus for girls only, and 7 a closed campus; in the *southern section*, 13 schools were reported as having an open campus, one a partially closed campus (for one lunch period only), and 49 a closed campus. Questionnaires were not returned from three schools in each section.

YES RESPONSES TO "DO YOU CONSIDER THAT YOU HAVE A CLOSED CAMPUS?"

What year was the closed campus initiated? The representatives of 47 schools indicated the date a closed campus was initiated, 7 indicated it was from the time the school opened, and 4 made no response to this item. The length of time the closed campuses have reportedly been in operation ranged from one half year to 58 years, with a median of 7 years and a mean of 13 years. There was no apparent difference in the length of time in operation as reported for those schools with indications of a closed campus in the northern section of California as compared to those in the southern section.

Why was it initiated? The representatives of all but five of the schools reporting a closed campus responded to this item. The reasons given, other than those listed above, in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. Better supervision and control of students
2. A district administrative policy

3. Request of businessmen and neighbors
4. School responsibility to know the whereabouts of pupils
5. Keep pupils out of community areas

Who does the supervision? The representatives of all schools reporting a closed campus reported on this item. The general pattern of supervision reported was that of a subordinate administrator (vice principal, dean, or administrative assistant) assuming the responsibility, with one to six certified persons on duty during the lunch and/or nutrition periods at designated areas. Some noted that teachers were permanently assigned to the supervisory duty and given a teaching period off, others reported a rotational plan for assigning teachers. Some indicated personnel were on duty throughout the day, others indicated supervision was planned for lunch and/or nutrition periods and before and after school. Some reported stationing personnel in areas of the community away from school, others indicated a police officer assigned by the local police department for patrolling areas away from the school. The representatives of 13 schools mentioned use of student service groups to assist with supervision; 11 mentioned security officers or non-certificated employees on duty. In words of one principal, the two classified ground proctors employed for supervision were "the best investment we ever made."

How is closed campus enforced? The representatives of 55 of the schools indicating a closed campus responded to this item. Many of the representatives left the impression that they considered leaving the campus without a permit a serious infraction of school rules. Leaving the campus was considered a truancy. Disciplinary action mentioned included the assignment of demerits, detention, cancellation of driving permit, parental conference, and/or suspension, with emphasis on the latter for second offenses. Comments and suggestions included the following:

It is accepted by the student body and disciplinary action is seldom necessary

At first there was need for considerable disciplinary action, but it gradually decreased to a very little

Enforcement is a tough unending job

Keep lunch hours short! Thirty or thirty-five minute lunch periods greatly limits the kinds and numbers of disciplinary problems

Are any of the pupils permitted to leave campus during school hours? All representatives of schools reporting a closed campus responded to this item. Reasons given for permitting pupils to leave the school grounds were: (1) a lunch permit issued upon request of a parent; (2) an authorized pass for reason of illness, doctor appointment, health problem, suspension, or emergency. Living within walking distance of school was given as sufficient reason for issuing a lunch permit; distances from 2 to 5 blocks were specified. Three representatives mentioned that parents must come to school to obtain a lunch permit for a pupil and that the

permit must be renewed each semester. It was implied that the number of pupils issued permits was very few; for example, one representative reported his school issued less than 25 permits from an enrollment of 2700, another 6 permits from an enrollment of 1700. Several representatives indicated that permission to leave the campus was granted on a daily basis.

Do you feel the closed campus solved the problem for which it was initiated? The representatives of 55 schools responded to this item. Fifty-three responded Yes, 2 responded No. Two of those indicating Yes expressed doubt ("I guess so." and "Too soon to be sure, but seems to be working.").

What new problems have resulted from providing the closed campus? The representatives of 54 schools responded to this item; 24 indicated no new problems, 21 mentioned increased smoking problems, six mentioned additional supervision and discipline, and four mentioned problems created by limited cafeteria and ground facilities. Concerning the smoking problem, the following comments are typical:

Smoking is a real problem, particularly in rest rooms

It is becoming more of a problem

Smoking on campus is greatly increased

We can supervise students and reduce smoking, while off campus we have no control at all

Some of the other comments offered on this item are:

The enforcement of any rule always involves additional problems

Problems do exist, but not any more than prior to a closed campus

There is no comparison as to what the problems are when the campus is not closed

Activity programs must be planned to keep students occupied

Give your brief evaluation of the closed campus. The representatives of 56 schools reporting a closed campus responded to this item; 54 of the responses were highly favorable, only two made comments that were unfavorable. The following comments are typical:

Highly essential for a large high school in a metropolitan area

The advantages far outweigh the disadvantages

We have always liked it

We would not have it any other way but closed

It eliminates more problems than it creates. It is worth giving the supervision time for enforcement

I don't see how a school can discharge its responsibility for students unless students can be accounted for at all times during the school day

If our students were permitted to leave school at noon, we would have all kinds and types of supervisory problems

Our campus is small. The limited facilities makes the enforcement very difficult

We started our school with an open campus. We changed to a closed campus within a couple of months. The noon-time problem became too great to permit it to continue

Comments and suggestions. Among the comments and suggestions offered were the following:

The important thing we suggest in starting a closed campus is to set up rules carefully, then enforce them

I believe all schools should be designed for a closed campus

We closed our campus initially because of community pressure. Students objected violently at the beginning. As the result of explanations and letting students work out the details for enforcement, it has become accepted by most of the student body. We are near several other large high schools. When the campus was open we had a problem with students from these schools. This condition has been remedied. Parents like the idea and cooperate with us. Sometimes we have to win over parents new to the community, but once the idea is presented and explained, they like it

NO RESPONSES TO "DO YOU CONSIDER THAT YOU HAVE A CLOSED CAMPUS?"

Do you consider the supervision of pupils at your school while off the school grounds a problem? The representatives of 50 schools indicating an open campus responded on this item; 16 reported *No*, 34 reported *Yes*. Problems indicated in order of frequency of mention were:

1. Smoking and loitering about neighborhood.
2. Scattering litter in yards and streets.
3. Complaints of merchants and homeowners.
4. Control of cars.
5. Out-of-school youth and students from other schools.

Typical of comments on this item are the following:

Supervision is a continual problem, but not to the extent as when we had a closed campus

We have had problems, but none we have not been able to meet successfully

We have no off-campus problems because we do not permit students to loiter. All teachers of the school share in an off and on campus patrol. Public relations have been materially improved by the introduction of the off-campus patrol plan.

What steps do you take to control youngsters while they are off the school grounds? All of the representatives of 51 schools reporting an open campus responded on this item. Six of the representatives indicated no steps for supervision were taken, 12 reported the assignment of teachers (1 to 9) to stations before and after school and/or during lunch periods on a permanent or rotational plan, 11 mentioned patrols by student groups, 9 indicated supervision by the administrative staff only (vice-principal or dean), 8 mentioned close supervision and support by local police department, and 4 indicated a special patrolman on duty at school during the day. Comments and suggestions on this item include the following:

We are working on a strict no loitering plan to be put into effect next year. Violators will be campused for the first offense and suspended for increasing lengths of time thereafter

We plan to prohibit students from driving off the campus during the noon period

We feel than an open campus gives us a very definite hold on our students. The threat of a closed campus will always clear up a problem

We have 30 minute lunch periods

We expect students to act and behave like good citizens and adults. If a privilege is abused, or an incident observed and reported, pressure is brought to bear by curtailment of individual privileges. We do not approve of mass retaliation for the behavior of a few non-conformists

We do "campus" individuals for infractions. They have to check in with the dean's office periodically. The police help us in keeping the "visiting firemen" from other schools out of our area

We require all students to park in our parking lot as soon as they arrive in the morning. Cars may not leave without special permission. Infringement results in the denial of the right to drive to school. Cars used by students are registered and a permit sticker placed on the windshield.

Are you giving consideration to initiating a closed campus? The representatives of all the schools reporting an open campus responded to this item; 36 responded *No*, 15 responded *Yes*. Of those responding *No*, 11 mentioned inadequate lunch facilities and/or small area of campus. The following statements are typical of those making a *No* response:

We don't want anything to do with a closed campus

We have discussed the matter and rejected it

We believe it is easier to permit our students to leave the campus than to supervise and entertain them on the grounds

Our philosophy is that we are preparing young people to take their place in society as responsible citizens. We do not feel we can accomplish this if we confine them to the campus. We must give them responsibility to assume and do everything at our command to assist them in this regard

The answer to the problem is in offering the students the responsibility for controlling their actions and have them accept it. We believe this as a better educational approach than a closed campus, though it may be more difficult to enforce

Typical comments from those responding *Yes* are the following:

Our small campus and limited facilities will present a very difficult problem in the enforcement of a closed campus

Inadequate cafeteria facilities may make the plan ineffective

Other schools in the area have a closed campus. We have little choice

Pressure is being applied by neighbors and city council to close the campus

We plan to try two 30 minute lunch periods. If this doesn't solve many of our problems, we will undoubtedly attempt the closed campus

We would like to maintain a democratic real-life situation by maintaining an open campus, but public pressure will force a closed campus

Have you had a closed campus at any time? The representatives of all the schools reporting a closed campus responded to this item; 42 responded *No*, 9 responded *Yes*. The reasons given for discontinuing the closed campus are as follows:

There were more problems than we have with the present plan
Parents disapproved; it was not practical with our present facilities
Difficulties of enforcing the closed campus made it impractical

The policing by faculty was a greater problem than could be justified

The cafeteria facilities and grounds are too small to serve our enrollment; hence, a large number of personnel was required for adequate supervision. Student morale would be at low ebb with a closed campus.

REPORT OF A SIMILAR STUDY¹

A similar study of the closed campus was conducted by Mr. E. A. Landgraf, principal of Porterville Union High School, Porterville, California, last January 1959. A questionnaire was forwarded to schools with an enrollment of over 2,000.

The responses to the question, "Do you operate a closed campus?", were 40 *Yes* and 38 *No*. To the question, "Do you have non-certificated employees supervise the parking area?", 20 responded *Yes*, 63 responded *No*.

A BRIEF ANALYSIS

Attempt has been made to summarize the closed campus questionnaire fairly, accurately, and factually. The interpretations that can be given and the resulting use that can be made of the summarized data provided on the preceding pages remain entirely at the disposal of the reader. Some observations, however, lend themselves for summary. The large number of returns on the closed campus questionnaire indicates a very high degree of interest on the part of school officials in large California high schools concerning the open and closed campus plans for supervising high-school youngsters. The closed campus appears to be an accepted plan for a majority of high schools with enrollments of over 1,000.

The closed campus has become traditionally accepted in the *southern section* of California, particularly in the Los Angeles and San Diego areas; while the open campus remains traditional in the *northern section*, particularly in the San Francisco Bay area. Though both the open and closed campus appear to operate successfully throughout the state, with school officials being very outspoken about the benefits of their individual plans, there seems to be a decided trend toward wider acceptance of the closed campus plan. Though the closed campus plan has been in operation for many years in a considerable number of large schools, it has had its greatest acceptance since World War II.

¹ The study covered many specific items relative to the supervision and control of high-school pupils.

The close supervision of pupils during noon, nutrition, before school, and/or after school periods appears to be characteristic of most large high schools regardless of open or closed campus policy. The number of supervisory personnel involved, including administrators, counselors, teachers, student groups, and non-certificated personnel, seems to vary in proportion to the extent of various problems of each individual school and community area.

In initiating a closed campus policy, it is strongly implied by a number of school representatives that careful plans must be made for supervision and enforcement; that the plan has faculty, student, and parent acceptance; and that consideration be given to providing adequate cafeteria and ground facilities to accommodate the school enrollment that must remain on the campus.

Help Your Students Help Themselves

HENRY J. DUEL

THE old saw that "The Lord helps those who help themselves" has more than surface meaning. Stripped of its more cynical implications, it is a psychologically and pedagogically sound concept which implies the importance of self-reliance and independence. It suggests a standing on one's own feet and a reliance and faith in one's own resources. As teachers, we often feel impelled to give more of ourselves by way of guidance and assistance to students than is really necessary. Infused by the "service" concept we go all out to give every help we can. In fact we often tend to give students too much help in our efforts to be sure that we fulfill our responsibilities to them.

If we reflect on our responsibilities as teachers, we will realize that one of our major jobs is to help students develop an independence of thought and action; to help them learn to stand alone; and to develop self-confidence and stimulate curiosity. To accomplish this, we also need to help students develop insight and an ability to evaluate themselves and their potential. Thus a major part of our responsibility as teachers is to help students help themselves.

The first step in creating an attitude of self-help is one of developing ability in self-evaluation. Students must first find out where they are and what they are so this knowledge can serve as a basis for self-improvement. Students have to learn to evaluate themselves in terms of their skills, their knowledges, their interests, and their potentials. Some writers have questioned the ability of students to make such self-evaluations. While experimental evidence of the adequacy of self-evaluation is not all-conclusive, some evidence, both empirical and experimental, exists which suggests self-evaluation as a useful instrument. Rogers, for example, points out that "Our experience has corroborated the theoretical principle that self-evaluation is the most desirable mode of appraisal in a student-centered course. The greater freedom to use self-evaluation in such a situation, the more obviously favorable have been the results."¹ Some experimental results have indicated that students can evaluate themselves if such evaluation is specific and adequately oriented toward understandable objectives. For example, in one experimental study it was demonstrated that students could evaluate themselves reliably, and

¹ Rogers, C. R. *Client Centered Therapy*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin and Co. 1954.

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with some validity, on gain in skills they achieved in a technical course of instruction.²

The most important question to consider here however, is "What is the value of self-evaluation?" If students *can* effectively evaluate themselves, what good is it to them? It has been contended that such information is of value to the student because it provides a basis for improved performance. In another study conducted by the author, it was shown that under some circumstances, students who evaluated themselves periodically achieved to a greater degree than did students who did no such evaluation.³ Other experiments in self-evaluation have not shown much promise.⁴

What is the difference between successful and unsuccessful self-evaluation? How can we help students help themselves through self-evaluation which is effective? In studying the variety of experiments which have been conducted, it appears that experiments which show little faith in self-evaluation are those in which the criteria of evaluation are so broad and subjective that they are difficult for students to define or to apply to some specific behavior. Those in which self-evaluation is successful have established more objective and specific behavior as a basis for self-evaluation. For example, if we ask the student to evaluate the year's grade that he should receive in chemistry, we are introducing too many variables. We have set too broad and subjective criteria for him to make an accurate assessment. We are asking him not only to evaluate his general pattern of behavior in chemistry during the year, but also to anticipate the behavior of his teacher. On the other hand if the student is given opportunity to ask himself, "To what extent can I demonstrate the characteristics of CO₂ by laboratory experimentation?" and is given a scale on which to evaluate himself, he cannot only do this with some validity and reliability, but such evaluation can lead to his improved performance. Thus it appears that we can help students help themselves if we give them carefully developed and objective instruments with which they can make effective self-evaluations.

What are the results of helping students help themselves through self-evaluation? From our observations of the process it appears that self-evaluation helps to accomplish the following:

1. Students develop more sensitivity to desired outcomes.
2. Students achieve better understanding of how they measure up to established standards.
3. Students develop more awareness of requirements and expectations.
4. Students are motivated through a challenge to "beat themselves."

² Duel, H. J. "A study of the validity and reliability of student evaluation of training." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Washington University, 1956.

³ Duel, H. J. "Effect of periodical self-evaluation on student achievement," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1958, 49, 197-199.

⁴ Russell, D. H. "What does research say about self-evaluation?" *Journal of Educational Research*, 1953, 46, 563-571.

5. Students are orientated toward a look at "self" and a reliance on "self."

6. Some of the fear component of solely external evaluation is removed.

7. Students develop a clearer frame of reference upon which to base future actions.

It is not proposed here that self-evaluation is a substitute for external measurement and evaluation. Its purposes, as described above, are entirely different. At a time when we are and should be concerned more with the problem of developing self-reliance, this is one effective method by which teachers can help students help themselves.

Problems in a Guidance Program

JAMES L. HOYT

TOO often an administrator, after employing a guidance counselor and helping him to develop a program, is content to feel his work done. This is not true. A smooth-running guidance program is just as important and continuous a job of the administrator as a smooth-running science program. Many times problems develop in a guidance program that would never have developed with a little foresight and planning on the part of the administrator. Other problems can be solved with his help and cooperation.

Many of these program-wrecking problems could be avoided if the administrator adopted a policy that guidance is an integral part of the curriculum of the school, just as are mathematics, history, and other subjects—no more, no less. This type of policy would go far in eliminating many of the most serious problems. Problems often arise when a guidance counselor, the other classroom teachers, or administrators view guidance as something other than an integral part of the curriculum. Let us examine some of the problems caused by these individuals if they see guidance in some other light.

A. PROBLEMS CAUSED BY COUNSELORS THEMSELVES

An Exaggerated Opinion of Counseling

Many counselors believe that guidance is such an important area and that it requires such skill that the counselor is more important to the system than other teachers. This is not true, and extra pay for counseling is not justified unless the position does require more time on the part of the counselor. This could be in the form of a longer school year or of other outside duties not asked of other members of the staff. If this is not required of the counselor, there is no real justification of paying more for counseling. The problem here is one of staff relations. It must be hard for the administrator to justify to the Spanish teacher with a master's degree in Spanish who spends her summers in Mexico why such a guidance person should get an extra \$200.

A Superior Attitude on the Part of the Counselor

Some counselors seem to believe that no other teacher has any understanding of students and their problems. This is contrary to fact. The counselor should be skilled in his field, but many teachers are also skilled

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in handling pupils. Good teachers have always given whatever time they had to helping the individual student. The counselor must realize that people would not be in teaching if they did not have some understanding and appreciation of pupils. Teachers resent the counselor's "talking down" to them when they are discussing students' problems, or "talking over" students in a possessive way.

B. PROBLEMS CAUSED BY TEACHERS

Resentment of the Counseling Time

Many teachers will consider the time the counselor has for individual counseling as free, or released time. Many teachers will not realize that such time is a vital part of any guidance program. This time is important, for guidance must be a one-to-one, face-to-face relationship; and this can only be achieved by giving the counselor time for this part of his program. Counselors should make wise use of such time, and administrators should help teachers to understand its purpose.

Jealousy of the Relationship Between Counselors and Students

Some teachers are likely to fear that the student no longer needs them as much as before counseling and that the student will no longer come to them for advice or consultation. Still others will rebuke any student who comes to him saying, "Don't see me; go see your counselor." Others make no referrals. If this problem arises, a good counselor will need the help of his administrator and the rest of the school staff to help these teachers understand the role of guidance. The students will still have their favorite teachers, and students will go to the understanding teacher. The counselor's job is not one to take away the friendship of the student from the teacher, but to help the student with problems, relationships, and information-giving that the other teachers are not prepared or equipped to handle, or have not adequate time to give.

C. PROBLEMS CAUSED BY ADMINISTRATORS

Using the Counselor as a Vice-Principal

Often the busy administrator would give work to the counselor that the principal or an assistant should be doing. The two most frequent examples of this are in the fields of attendance and discipline. The counselor must be thought of in the same sense as one thinks of an English teacher or history teacher. He is not an office secretary or file clerk, not a substitute teacher to fill in for the other teachers, nor is he an assistant principal to ease the load on the principal. He is only a member of the teaching staff, working in his own special field with his own special tools and skills, just as are the industrial arts or home economics teachers, and is just as much a part of the staff as a mathematics teacher, even though they all work in different ways and in different fields. Other duties assigned should in no way alter the role of the counselor or waste counseling time.

Using Counseling as a Promotion for Long, Loyal Service to the System

Nothing will decrease the effectiveness of counseling more in any school system than to use it as a reward. The counselor must be well qualified and well trained. Guidance personnel, just as English teachers, must be personally and professionally prepared for this work. Many schools use counseling as the first step into administration. This may be bad, or it may be good, depending upon many factors; but the important thing to remember is that the guidance program must be worth while in itself. The people put into it and the emphasis given it must be to benefit the students through good counseling. If it is used only as a reward to teachers or only as a stepping-stone for administration, it probably will not be as important to the school system or as beneficial to students as if it were thought of as an integral part of the curriculum itself.

These are some of the many problems which may affect a beginning or a long-established guidance program. If any do develop, they are bound to decrease the effectiveness of the guidance program. No guidance program can be effective without excellent working relations and understanding among the other teachers, the administrators, and the counselors. It is part of the responsibility of the administrator who wants a good guidance program to see that these problems are prevented if possible, or cleared up promptly.

The Seriousness of a High-School Education

O. I. SCHMAELZLE

IN the last year or two the general public has taken another look at our secondary schools and is concerned with the courses being taught and the way high schools are being conducted. Educators throughout the land are realizing that high-school programs have been too easy, and in some cases, that high schools have served only as a "resting place" until the young people reach 16 or 18 years of age. It was the Russian Sputnik that first focused attention and caused a re-evaluation of what should be expected of the present high school and its students. Who should attend the high schools? What should be the standards of achievement for our high schools and the students in them? These two important questions must be considered and decided upon by each high school today.

The American Institute of Public Opinion, sponsors of the Gallup Poll, made public the results of a nation-wide poll which resulted in headlines to "Get the 'High' back in High School." The general public wants tighter scholastic standards in the nation's high schools. The latest Gallup Poll, which comes from the general public and not just educators, shows a majority of the people favor: (1) standard nation-wide examination for high-school diplomas (59% in favor, 39% opposed); (2) more homework in high schools (51% for and 33% against).

We at George Washington High School, for years, have maintained definite and strict requirements and standards; yet we welcomed this new emphasis on higher standards in academic pursuits, and we heartily agree that our high school should be available only to those who really and truly want a high-school education. With these ideas in mind, today we want to outline for you our policy and our expectation of our students. Listen carefully to the presentation of the attitudes and the responsibilities you are expected to assume while enrolled at George Washington High School.

In the first place, self-discipline (responsibility for one's own action) is an important ultimate goal of education. While education is a right of American youth, it is not an absolute right. It is qualified *first* by eligibility requirements, and *second* by performance requirements. As regards the performance requirements, our school board and our courts speak of education as a limited right, or a privilege; that is, should a student fail to perform those duties required of him upon attendance in

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public school, he may then be excluded from the school. As stated in the Education Code of the State of California: "The failure of a student to comply with the duties he is bound to perform constitutes misconduct, and such a student is liable to probation, suspension, or expulsion."

What then are the duties a student must perform satisfactorily to continue his education at George Washington High School? The student's duties are as follows:

1. Comply with the rules and regulations set forth by George Washington High School, which are found in the student handbook.
2. Pursue the required course of study.
3. Submit to the authority of the teachers of the school.
4. Display good conduct to and from school, on school grounds, and on street cars and buses.
5. Abstain from profanity, gambling, immorality, using tobacco, narcotics, or intoxicating liquors.
6. Refrain from defacing, damaging, or destroying school property.
7. Be diligent in study. To be diligent in study, a student shall:
 - (a) Complete all assigned work on time
 - (b) Pay strict attention to the teacher at all times
 - (c) Exhibit good citizenship
 - (d) Do that caliber or degree of work consistent with the student's individual ability and grade level
 - (e) Cooperate with teachers and the student government at George Washington High School
 - (f) Be regular and punctual in attendance.

The next question that may be asked is, "What will be done if a student violates any of these behavior policies?" First and foremost, corrective measures will be taken. Any violation should be a signal for teachers, counselors, and administrators to initiate investigation. Each student is an individual, and the control and correction of student misconduct must be handled on an individual case basis. Hence every effort will be made to assist the student in adjusting and correcting his problem. If efforts here fail, then the administration will decide whether the student can profitably remain at George Washington High School. The great majority enrolled in George Washington High School want to learn and are eager to abide by the regulations of the school. These young people have rights too and should not be held back by the few who are actually not interested in being educated. With overcrowded classes, our teachers cannot waste effort and energy on those persons who refuse to do their part, at the expense of those who want to learn.

The old pattern of sending our undesirables, or problem cases, to Continuation High School has been discontinued. The Continuation High School now is for those who are working part-time or full-time. It was never meant to be a correctional institution or a penal establishment and at the present it is functioning as it was originally intended.

Our Continuation High School will enroll students from the following categories: (1) students working full-time or part-time; (2) students seeking full-time employment; (3) late entrants who have not attended school during the current semester and who have arrived too late to profit from the regular program of studies; and (4) others, including those who may be served better by Continuation than by other high schools, but not including chronic truants or disciplinary problems except those assigned to the school by the Child Welfare Staff.

Then comes the question, "What is to be done with the (a) persistent failures, (b) disciplinary problems, (c) over-age students, (d) chronic truants? After careful consideration of each case, and after consultation with teachers and counselors, and even after suspension, if a boy or girl continues to disregard our behavior policies, he may be excluded from school. Once excluded from school, the person may not return that semester, and only on probation the following semester. The Juvenile Court and the Juvenile Bureau will be notified of such exclusions.

Briefly then, if any of you consistently do failing work, are chronic truants, or become serious discipline problems, fail to improve after our efforts to help you, we will just drop you from our rolls. This is called exclusion. Severe? Not at all. This high school is not a loafing place or a shelter for undesirables. You make your record. We only keep it.

Though I may seem, in my next remarks, to digress, the study I shall describe may provide material for thought for some of you. The study was made in another large city on the question, "Do automobiles and scholarship mix?" A study made of the four-year grade-point average of car drivers showed the following: no straight "A" student had the use of a car; only 15% of the "B" students drove a car to school; of "C" students, 41% brought cars to school, of "D" students, 71% drove to school; and of "F" students, 83% drove to school. It would seem, from these data, that automobiles and scholarship do not mix. In a Texas high school, the principal has observed that there is a high correlation between rate of failure, scholarship, and ownership and operation of automobiles by high-school youth. He writes: "We are finding it difficult to obtain much interest from able-bodied boys in major athletics. So many of the boys are paying for automobiles or for the maintenance and operation of cars by holding down part-time jobs after school hours that the boys don't go out for athletics. If they have money to operate their cars, they prefer to ride them around town after school."

In conclusion, this broadcast is given for the prime purpose of causing you to realize that a high-school education is not cheap and that you must work for the privilege of remaining in George Washington High School. Because of our revised behavior policy, which has just been outlined to you, there probably will be more dropouts in the days ahead. We hope, on the other side of the ledger, that more serious attention will be given to the value of a good high-school education.

We are making every effort to improve our instruction and to prepare you students fully for life after graduation from George Washington High School, whether it be in business or on to higher education. An example of our interest in your future welfare is our follow-up program of our graduates. Last fall six of the faculty members went to Stanford University and interviewed individually the twenty-one students now enrolled there, to see how we could improve our program. Also, we have talked to many University of California students who were visiting us last week during the between-semester recess. The story is the same. They all say, "Keep up your high standards, teach your students to do original thinking and writing. Encourage them to concentrate on the subject at hand. Help them do analytical reasoning and, above all, have them *earn* the grades you give them."

We are fortunate in having a well-balanced and professionally minded teaching staff. Our faculty members are dedicated to the cause of good teaching. Our physical facilities are adequate and modern. The atmosphere here for both teachers and students is conducive to good, sound learning. Besides, there are many opportunities for self-expression and mature leadership through our many and varied extracurricular activity programs. With all these favorable factors in our high-school environment, you students are privileged and indeed should produce the best possible educational results. So now you have heard the policy of your high school as to attendance, behavior, and standards. By carrying out fully this policy, we give to your George Washington High School diploma real significance and high recognition.

The Student Newspaper

DELBERT L. BAKER, SR.

THE student newspaper which is firmly woven into the pattern of American school life has as its major function "... that of serving as a part of the program of education supplied by the schools."¹ As with commercial publications, school newspapers fill a need and demand and should pay their way and make a profit. However, the profit may be counted in returns which are not monetary, but are valuable in an intangible way. Needless to say, these intangibles may consist of the learning of foundation skills which the student may apply and expand in later life in many occupations. Specifically, these benefits may include: (1) training in writing; (2) experience in working with others; (3) practice in doing things quickly and on time; (4) training in straight, clear thinking; (5) experience in meeting people; (6) business experience through the keeping of accounts to the selling of advertising; and (7) prestige among fellow students.

In addition to these benefits which students receive, the following list will serve as an example of the basic purposes to be served to the school: (1) to publish school news; (2) to educate the community as to the work of the school; (3) to create and express school opinion; (4) to act as a means of unifying the school; (5) to encourage and stimulate worthwhile activities; (6) to aid in developing correct standards of conduct; (7) to provide better understanding of other schools; (8) to express the idealism and reflect the spirit of the school; and (9) to promote cooperation between parents and the school.

The student newspaper fills a need and demand of students, teachers, parents, and alumni. This group of people has a strong bond of interest—the school and what affects the school. The paper staff must bear in mind that they publish only for a small part of the general public; therefore, they should not attempt to compete with newspapers of general circulation in the coverage of news of the whole community, state, or nation, but restrict their reporting to the small community—the school—of which they are a part.

SELECTION OF ADVISER

In considering the publication of a school newspaper, one of the most important factors is the selection of a faculty sponsor or a committee of

¹ Moehlman, Arthur B., and James A. Van Zwoll. *School Public Relations*. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc. 1957. P. 500.

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sponsors. Criteria to follow in making these selections should be that: (1) competent advisers be persons endowed with considerable creative ability, persisting intellectual curiosity, and a real respect for scholarly habits and attitudes; (2) advisers be persons who possess a basic respect for all segments of the school and community; and (3) advisers be persons who have mastered to a considerable degree communications skills.

It is further suggested that administrators and boards of education encourage advisers toward in-service participation in conferences, workshops, and summer sessions by some form of subsidization to insure continuing growth and improved understanding of the responsibilities inherent in an adviser's job. Policies vary as to the granting of released time or salary increments to teachers for work in the school publications field. A major factor to be considered is the number of hours advisers of publications must devote if students are to gain a true educational experience and if the publications are to be of a quality worthy of their efforts.

From a survey conducted by the author, it was found that the amount of released time varied from three teaching periods per day in a seven-period schedule to none—the latter being particularly true on the junior high-school level. The granting of released time was found to be especially prevalent in the senior high schools which offer courses in journalism and where the students are more likely to have study periods which can be devoted to working on the publications. In those schools which provide remuneration for school positions, efforts should be made to establish a scale of remuneration which will place advisers of approved publications on an equal par with heads of departments and coaches of major sports.

FREQUENCY OF PUBLICATION

The frequency of publication varies from school to school and is dependent upon many factors; namely, size of publication, funds available, and the demands of the student body. In most schools surveyed, the newspapers were issued monthly on the junior high-school level with some schools printing only three editions a semester, while most senior high schools publish weekly or bi-monthly. This frequency of publication on the senior high-school level is brought about by the extent of activities within the school program and the number of and types of cocurricular activities.

FINANCING

The financing of a newspaper is one which many advisers find to be the most vexing part of their responsibility. The desirable development is to have the paper financed independently, preferably through the board of education and distributed gratis to the students since the paper is a part of the total school program. The ideal method, of course, is to

sell it to every student, alumni, and friend through subscriptions. The most common form is to sell to as many students, alumni and friends as possible and through the method of selling advertisements. The author recommends the elimination of the selling of advertising space when the student subscriptions are of sufficient quantity to forego this need, giving more space for news and other articles to maintain this student interest.

The budget for the publication will determine the size of the paper which precludes that the budget of possible income and expenditures must be carefully planned in conjunction with the administration and the business staff. The author suggests that, assuming the paper is to be printed commercially, a layout of the type of paper desired be discussed with the printer for his expert assistance in figuring costs. This preliminary step can eliminate many frustrating and embarrassing situations later. The author has found printers to be very cooperative in providing costs to the minutest detail.

SUBSCRIPTION CAMPAIGNS

The ideal time for a subscription campaign is in the fall, prior to the appearance of the first issue. This has the advantage of giving the staff an idea of how well it will be supported, and how much income can be expected. This doesn't "dull the point" behind the campaign as may be expected when the first issue of the paper is given to all students to interest them in something they can see and read. The campaign should be conducted within a prescribed period of time and, except under extenuating circumstances, payment should not be extended beyond this period of time. When possible, the paper should be subscribed to for the period of the full school year. However, the author found it highly successful to conduct a fresh campaign each semester with more papers being sold the second semester. A major factor in deciding to use the two campaigns was the departure of students due to mid-term promotions.

SELECTION OF STAFF

The following procedures are suggested for use in the selection of the staff, particularly by the novice adviser:

1. A general notice is issued to the student association calling for all interested students to attend an organization meeting. No restrictions are placed upon the number or ability of the students since many who are not proficient in writing may be used in other categories necessary to the production of a newspaper.
2. An outline is distributed of the functions of each department, the duties involved, and the purpose of the paper.
3. Competitive examinations are given for each section of the paper with the selection of the editors being made from those who have performed well in the competitions. Frequently, advisers find it advantageous to withhold the final appointments to editorship until the students have had an opportunity to demonstrate their ability as leaders, and display their capabilities during the publication of the first issue.

4. Art students are given a variety of articles to read and illustrate by sketches. These are judged by the art department of the school and the paper adviser.

5. Photography students submit examples of their work for judging. Capable students are usually available to develop and print film.

6. The business staff is given the task of submitting ideas and detailed plans for subscription campaigns and the selling of ads, the latter usually very important to the novice paper staff in meeting expenses.

The students who form the most important segment of the staff will consist of the reporters without whom the editors would be useless. Under no circumstances should these students be relayed into the background; they should be made to realize the importance of their jobs and the necessity for performing them with the utmost care and precision.

PRODUCTION PROCEDURES

The staff has been selected, editors have been appointed, then arrives the task of the actual production of the newspaper. The best rule for the staff to follow is to start small and grow big—better than starting big and growing small. Many school staffs attempt to imitate or outdo papers in neighboring schools which have been long established. These too-ambitious plans in size, number of pages, and number of issues frequently result in humiliating experiences for the staff and points out their incompetence. The following steps are suggested in the production of the school publication:

1. During the first editor's meeting, the size of the columns, the number of words per printed inch, the preparation of copy of reporters, the recommended journalistic practices to be followed by each section, the arranging for pictures, and other basic information to be passed on to the reporters are discussed.

2. Sectional meetings are conducted by each editor to distribute assignments, to plan the page or pages under their direction, and to gather information during the editor's meeting. Definite instructions concerning the preparation of copy and the necessity for meeting deadlines are impressed upon the reporter staff.

3. Editors read the prepared copy, make suggestions, and, in an emergency, rewrite sections of the articles to conform to the prescribed standards; headlines are written with instructions detailed for the printer; articles are typed; pictures are collected with final dimensions placed upon the back of the picture for the printer, and the copy is delivered with the layout of the paper to the printer.

4. Make-up staff fits the copy and pictures to a "dummy" to represent the final paper; copyreaders proofread the articles on another "galley" for corrections and deletions. These corrections and deletions should be kept to a minimum, since they are expensive.

5. The final copy is proofread for typographical errors, returned to the printer for publication. He, in turn, returns the ordered number of copies for distribution by the business staff.

The actual make-up of a paper is not discussed in more detail here because there are many excellent articles and books written expressly on this subject, many of which may be found in the bibliography below.

Since each school will devise its own methods to use in the selection of staff, distribution of issues, and financing, the author would hesitate to dictate any one method as being better than another. He offers the preceding information solely as a guide to those who may experience difficulty in the administration of a school publication.

The responsibility of the school administrator in the selection of the press adviser, the financing of the paper, and the other facets of a school newspaper should be evident at this time. The administrator's endeavors will decide the success or failure of the newspaper as an educational instrument to enrich the curriculum and, hence, the lives of his students.

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The Sex of a Counselor—Does It Make Any Difference?

ANGELO V. BOY

IN SCHOOL situations, there has been a tendency to appoint male counselors for boys and female counselors for girls with the assumption that boys find it easier to talk to a man and that girls find it easier to talk to a woman because neither group would reveal their innermost feelings to a counselor of the opposite sex. In some schools, it is the established pattern for a girl to request an appointment with a woman counselor while a boy makes his appointment with a male counselor.

The validity of such a procedure is seriously doubted since little consideration is given to the effectiveness of the counselor regardless of the counselor's sex. Good counseling is good counseling regardless of whether it emanates from a man or woman. If a counselor is well trained in the techniques of counseling, the sex of the counselor will have no bearing on the outcomes of counseling. The methodology involved in assisting a counselee to bring a problem to the surface, release it, and proceed toward a self-determined solution to that problem is in no way related to the counselor's sex. If the counselor engages in expressions of sympathy with a client then perhaps a woman can be more sympathetic to a girl's problem, but this expression of sympathy is not counseling, *per se*. Successful counseling depends upon proceeding with established techniques in aiding a client to see and solve a problem, and sympathy provides a momentary crutch, but has no long-range effectiveness.

The counselee who is under emotional stress desires help with his problem and from whom this help comes is of little regard to the counselee as long as the assistance is rendered. This counseling help may come from a man or a woman, but it is not important to the counselee as long as real help is provided. The counselee who is receiving true help doesn't view the counselor as a man or a woman, but as the agent who is assisting in the surfacing of the problem. The counselee is not prone to say more to a counselor of the same sex or less to a counselor of the opposite sex in a true counseling situation since the counselor's sex has no bearing on the counselee's responses. Again, good counseling is good counseling and is not related to the sex of the counselor.

Employing a counselor simply because that counselor happens to be of a particular sex is just as unfounded as employing a counselor because

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he is of a particular age, height, or weight. A woman who is not an effective counselor will not achieve success in counseling with girls, while a man who is an effective counselor will reach a high degree of success with the same group of girls. The previous sentence might indicate that the writer feels that counselors should counsel with members of the opposite sex. This is not his contention. His contention is that a counselor should be able to have his door open to any student, whether that student is a boy or girl, and an effective counselor will be successful with both boys and girls. Further, a woman who is a good counselor with girls is not a good counselor because she is a woman dealing with girls, but she is a good counselor because she is employing the proper techniques of counseling in aiding the girl to see and solve her problem.

At this point it is perhaps important to describe the type of counselor who would prove effective with both boys and girls. That is, the term counselor has a certain frame of reference as it is used in this article. Some feel that a counselor operates strictly on an informational level by keeping track of the latest entrance requirements for certain colleges, assisting students with their elective choices, planning career days, placing students in jobs, offering vocational information, and following up last year's graduating class. At this informational level perhaps a male counselor would be better equipped to work with boys than a woman since he is more aware of the male world and its requirements. The same would be true of a woman counselor in her work with girls.

However, the writer views the counselor not as one who primarily operates at the informational level, but as one who possesses the necessary training in the field of counseling to assist a client who is carrying a burdensome emotional problem. The informational phase of his work occupies only a small part of his time; the area of personal problems is his prime concern. He possesses the techniques which will assist the student to know his problem, release it, and proceed toward its solution. This type of counselor is a professional who is profoundly aware of the methodology involved in being of maximum assistance in aiding the student to solve his personal problem.

In the above type of counseling, counseling in the personal area, there is no increased ratio of success because a male counselor is counseling a disturbed boy or because a woman counselor is counseling a disturbed girl. The sex of the counselor will have no bearing on the success of the counseling session since effective counseling is effective counseling regardless of whether it emanates from a man or woman.

A Study of High-School Failures

MRS. YVONNE C. WATTS

DURING the 1957 fall semester, fifty-three out of two hundred sixty tenth-grade students at the high school in which this study was made, failed one or more subjects. At this time a counseling program was initiated for these students. An attempt was made in this study to determine the characteristics of the failing students to recognize potential failures, to determine the reasons for failure, and to offer individual counseling as determined by the individual situation. The examples and comments herein will illustrate a few typical problem situations of the failing student. Each student and parent interviewed was briefed on the purpose of the study. Most interviewees showed interest in the study and recognized the need for trying to help the failing student.

SELECTION OF THE GROUP

This high school encompasses the ninth through the twelfth grades. The tenth-grade students were selected for this study because they had already made the transition from junior high school to high school. The tenth-grade pupils were scheduled to have their I.Q. tests later. This determined their potential intellectual ability to perform at high-school level. Another reason for studying the tenth-grade pupils was that they were available for observation during the remainder of their high-school career.

The students were interviewed individually in order to obtain a social history. The teachers filled out a questionnaire regarding the students' conferences with the teachers. Parents were also used in rounding out the picture of the student and his problems.

BACKGROUND

Student failures were studied on the basis of emotional, environmental, intellectual, family, and personality problems. Except for students having subnormal intelligence, each failing student considered in this study appeared to have two or more major problems. The four problems occurring most frequently within the group were: subnormal intelligence, family conflicts, limited parental education, and frequent change of residence. The reasons given by the student for his failures were also considered. The majority of students were affected by the problem of family

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conflict. The family conflicts encountered most frequently included divorce, separation of parents from their children, parents on the verge of divorce, over-protective parents, the rejected child, chronic illness in the family, and/or child and acute sibling rivalry. Five cases illustrating aspects of family conflicts will be presented.

The intelligence quotient of the entire tenth grade was obtained with the Science Research Associates Primary Mental Abilities Test. Of the fifty-three students, two had above average I.Q.'s, thirty-nine were average, and twelve were of subnormal intelligence. Thus approximately twenty-five per cent of this group had subnormal intelligence and could not be expected to perform successfully on a high-school level. This intellectually subnormal group was not considered further in this study.

Parents who have completed only the tenth grade or less frequently consider the tenth grade difficult and any further education unnecessary. This attitude occasionally is transmitted to the child who feels that no further education is expected of him and allows his grades to drop through indifference. Other children are considered by their parents to be sufficiently educated for the purpose of obtaining full-time employment either within the family business or independently and are, therefore, encouraged to drop school.

The educational background of the fifty-three students' fathers was as follows: one had a doctor's degree, one attended but did not complete college, nineteen finished high school, thirty-two did not receive a high-school diploma. Generally, parents of any given student had approximately the same educational background.

Since the school at which the study was made is located within a Federally impacted area, many students had been subjected to frequent moves. This caused a somewhat unstable and insecure situation as the student had to reaccustom himself continuously to new schools, neighborhoods, friends, and environments. Sixteen students in this group had never moved, ten made one move, eleven made two to three moves, and sixteen made over four moves.

The reasons given by the students for their failure fell into three groups which were based upon their responses to the question of why they thought they had failed. The three most frequent replies by the students to the question, "What do you think was the reason for your failure?" were: dislike of school (16); did not study (25); did not understand the material (12). The students in the group which stated they did not understand the material often added that they were "slow," indicating that they were aware of their intellectual limitations.

Through conferences with the student, valuable information was received on his study habits, outside help he received with his studies, and the home conditions under which he studied. Discussions of the home environment in which the student studied gave some insight to the relationship between him and other members of his family. In this manner, existing family difficulties were disclosed and discussed.

This counseling program was the first of its kind in the country. Although a program of this nature would be beneficial to this community, supporting facilities are non-existent and plans for such a program are non-existent.

SETTING

This high school opened in 1953 with 550 students and included the seventh through the twelfth grades. The seventh and eighth grades were discontinued as enrollment increased and local junior high schools were built. This school serves the southern half of a rapidly developing rural county. The 1957 school enrollment of approximately 950 students varies with the fluctuation of the local population. A major factor to be considered is the presence of a military installation which is served by the high school. The student population reflects the problems of a community dependent on a military installation. One of the school's problems is the high rate of mobility of both students and teaching staff. In this study, thirty per cent of the fifty-three students had made over four major changes of location. The majority of the students appeared to have two or more major problems, one of which was that of family conflict. The following five cases will attempt to present these problems in their natural setting with respect to the student.

CASE ILLUSTRATIONS

Broken Home: Effect of Parents' Marital Problems on the Student

John is the second of three children. He resembles his shy, thin father. John's 118 I.Q. indicates above average intelligence. His father was graduated from high school and his mother completed the ninth grade. John's father is in the military service and the family has been transferred approximately once a year for the last ten years. Consequently, the children are in and out of various schools and, therefore, must adjust to new neighborhoods and make new friends. Although John is repeating the tenth grade, he is still failing courses. He states that he is not interested in school and doesn't do much homework. When discussing the conditions at home under which he studied, John hinted vaguely that something was amiss between his parents.

John's parents requested weekly appointments for marital counseling. His mother commented, "Well, let's face it, we've been pretty much wrapped up in our own difficulties; you see, we're both very stubborn and have been thinking of divorce." As a result of my interviews with the parents, they came to realize that their problems were disturbing John.

The quarreling and tension in the home worried John much more than his parents had realized. He sensed that his home was about to be broken and all that represented security and stability might be taken away. John's way of showing how he felt and of asking for attention was by failing. John's school work reflected his troubled home situation. He suffered, as children frequently do in situations of this nature, from guilt

feelings, imagining that something he said or did had caused his parents' conflict.

John and his parents were seen separately on a weekly basis for two months. John's grades came up to passing, but not to what might be expected of a person with his intelligence. Although improvement was seen in his grades, it was not possible in this short time to resolve the parents' long standing problems due to their seriousness and complexity.

Over-Protective Parents

Jack is the youngest of nine children and is, in his mother's words, "my baby boy." This sixteen-year-old boy is quiet, slow, and dependent on mother to get him out of whatever minor difficulties he does get into. Jack's low average I.Q. (80) indicates that not too much can be expected of him academically. He has a long record of previous failures. His father and mother concluded their education with the eighth grade; thus Jack has surpassed his parents educationally. The family has made only one local move since Jack's birth. Jack stated that he did not study and was not interested in school or much of anything else.

His mother did not want to see her youngest child grow up and leave home. She had been successful in suppressing his ambition and desire for independence. Jack's personality was undeveloped and he showed a lack of normal aggressive drives. His mother was interested in having him pass. She came to school to discuss her son's poor grades. This formed the beginning of case work relationship. Fortunately Jack's mother had more realistic and ambitious goals for her other children and had not attempted to dominate them. Through a series of conferences, she was able to see that she was clinging to her last child and was able to express her feelings of regret that he was finally growing up and soon would leave her. Upon realizing that her attitude toward Jack was detrimental to his progress, she was able to give him needed encouragement and independence and a more constructive atmosphere. He was gradually given some complete responsibilities of his own on which to make decisions. As he grew in independence, his work slowly began to show more diligence and care in preparation. Jack's mother was encouraged to stop helping him with his lessons and allow him to assume the responsibility of preparing them himself. Jack and his mother agreed that a certain prescribed amount of time should be spent on lessons daily, but that it would be Jack's personal responsibility to find the time. During this time Jack's mother became a grandmother and much of her attention was turned to other members of her family. Her new activities made it easier for her to give up doting on her last son.

Eventually only Jack was interviewed, thus giving him more responsibility in the case work appointments. Jack and his mother learned that he can manage for himself, that his failures are his responsibility, that he can make something of himself, and that his home can help him to grow into an independent and mature adult. Ultimately Jack found that he

could approach his teachers, without his mother, and ask for extra help and explanations.

The Rejected Child

Tom is an appealing, frail boy who is defensive about his size. His attempt to affect a blasé-man-of-the-world attitude indicated his feelings of inferiority. His mother and stepfather both completed high school. Because of his stepfather's military career, Tom's family has made five major moves since he entered the first grade. He has failed several subjects since the eighth grade. With an I.Q. of 95, Tom is capable of completing high school, although it will require studying which Tom has failed to do.

In discussing his family situation, Tom described his mother as "a pretty little mother" and his stepfather as "a big heavy set man who beats me up." "My real father doesn't care about me, doesn't even remember my name." Tom has a younger brother whom he states the father overtly prefers. Tom was encouraged to discuss any feelings of loneliness, resentment, or jealousy that he might have. By discussing, over a period of time, his feelings of being rejected, it was possible to help Tom see how these feelings and concerns were affecting his school work. He continued to verbalize many of his wishes and dreams about himself as a strong, powerful person. He needed to feel important and accepted for himself. This fact was stressed in talking with his parents. The stepfather gradually came to realize the extent to which he was favoring his own robust child to Tom. After several interviews, the stepfather began to realize how important he was to Tom, in that Tom aspired to be a "big man like Dad."

Tom found that his stepfather enjoyed calling out spelling words to him and, as they worked together on this project, their relationship improved. Although Tom's grades were still poor at the end of the year, he failed only one subject. Tom and his stepfather are beginning to recognize that they are important to each other and are continuing to develop an improved father-son relationship.

Chronic Illness in the Family and Its Effect on the Student

"Mother keeps me home to take care of her. I love her too much to see her dead." Thus Ann has expressed her ambivalent feelings toward her mother. On one hand, she unconsciously wishes her mother dead so that she could be released from the responsibilities that her mother has imposed upon her; on the other hand, she feels guilty about her death wishes for her mother and strives to do everything she can for her.

Ann does not get along with the other students at school. She is chronically absent. Her obsessive talk of "animal friends" which, for her, replace human friends, indicates a severe personality disturbance. She has turned to a fantasy life, not normal in a girl her age, as a substitute for meeting the everyday challenges of teenage life. To get attention

and show that she is socially accepted, she circulated the false rumor that she was married.

Ann's mother needs help in order to realize the effect that she is having on her only child. The mother's dependence on her daughter reflects her own unresolved problems. Work with the student was slow because Ann's mother had conditioned her to feelings of guilt in her wish to leave her, attend school, and learn to become an independent, mature person.

Although Ann has failed several courses, she is a girl of high average intelligence (I.Q. 106). Her father finished the tenth grade and her mother, the twelfth. The family has lived in the same community ever since Ann started school. Ann's mother was never "well enough" to keep an appointment at school to talk about Ann's problems and school record. Unless her mother can be reached, the outlook for Ann is very poor.

Chronic Illness of the Student and Its Effect

Jerry is a student of average intelligence (I.Q. 101). His mother finished high school and his father completed the ninth grade. Because the father is in the military service, the family moves frequently. Jerry said that he did not study because he disliked school. Jerry is repeatedly absent due to chronic bronchitis. He is a robust, only child of physically small and ineffectual parents. This child has been over protected by his parents because of his illness. He has learned that he can use his illness to control his family. Now he apparently would like to control his total environment. However, he cannot command the world the way he did his parents, so he retaliates by becoming asocial which is manifested in his fights with other students, destruction of school property, and cutting classes. His parents have always managed to extract him from whatever difficulties he got into. Now that he wants to be independent, he is trying to see how much the world will let him get away with and also see how far his parents will go. At this formulative period, the student can be especially amenable to case work treatment.

Jerry was allowed the freedom of picking his own time for weekly appointments and emphasis was placed on his responsibility to keep them. He was pleased with this arrangement that allowed him to initiate the conferences, and it is interesting to note that he was meticulous about keeping the appointments. Jerry could not sit quietly during these interviews because of his pent up feelings of rage and hostility toward his family, the school, and the world in general. He found relief in walking about the room and flinging his arms about as he spoke. He also found relief in discussing the frustrating situations in which he was not allowed to be in control of the situation. He was helped to express his feelings about being over-protected by his parents because of his illness and his feelings of wanting to be a strong healthy person.

Because it was not possible to confer with the parents, Jerry was not able to resolve his frustrating problem of being "the sickly mama's boy

who must do everything he is told, so that he will get better." Although his grades did not improve, he did stop fighting with other students, no longer tried to destroy school property, and no longer cut classes. For Jerry, this was the first step toward resolving his problem of conflict with his environment.

Sibling Rivalry and Its Effect on the Student

Joe is the youngest of two brothers. He is a small, thin, happy looking boy. Joe's father finished the eighth grade and his mother finished the tenth grade. The family has always lived in this area. Joe says he does not study and has lost interest in school. His older brother has a physical defect for which he receives a great deal of attention. The older brother has done very well scholastically and extracurricularly. Unconsciously, Joe is jealous of his brother and feels that his handicap is an asset. Although, outwardly, Joe appears to get along with his brother, inwardly, he is having a battle with himself. He found that his parents became quite attentive and concerned over him when he did poorly in school. He responded eagerly to weekly interviews. He obviously enjoyed this extra attention and his grades showed some small improvement. Joe was helped to express some of his feelings of jealousy about his brother, thus relieving some of the tension he felt.

The parents were seen twice and were willing to give Joe more attention at home. They had not realized how much the situation had affected Joe and were quite willing to praise and help him. Joe is a responsive person with whom it is a pleasure to work. He responded to a sympathetic listener, talked easily and gained some insight into his problems.

The Selection of Eighth Grade Candidates for the Honors Program

MAGDALENE D. WITTMAYER

LYONS Township High School has operated for years on the philosophy that each student will learn more and go farther in developing his potentialities if the learning—and the teaching—situations are planned to meet individual differences. The addition of the Honors level courses several years ago is but another step in this direction. For example, the current English program now actually offers instruction at six ability levels. This begins with the E.M.H. program at the lower ability level, the English fundamentals classes, then general English, followed by English R (regular English) for the majority of students, English S for superior students, and now English Honors for the extremely gifted. This same type of program with six levels of instruction is also offered in the mathematics department. Other departments also make some provisions for individual differences. Since we firmly believe that the individual student profits from this type of program, it is important that the public knows and understands the values inherent in these provisions for individual differences. This has been discussed at a number of PTA meetings in the area and is expressed in a letter to Honors candidates and their parents as follows:

... It is our sincere belief that each student in our high school is entitled to participate in a learning situation which will enable him to make the best possible use of his abilities so that he may realize his highest potential. This implies that we must make provision for individual differences to an even greater degree than we have in the past. This also means that the development of each student must be carefully watched so that changes in his program will be made as needed. We are dedicated to this type of service to our students and to our community.

Lyons Township High School, together with the elementary schools in the area, works as a cooperating school district, and a joint committee on testing insures uniformity of the data which is reported to the high school. As soon as the Dean's cards (supplied by the high school and filled out by the elementary-school personnel) are returned to the high school, committees in the various departments begin the work of evaluating and sectioning the incoming eighth-grade pupils. This initial selection is based on the Otis I.Q. (plus California and/or Binet in some cases), the results of the *Stanford Achievement Battery* (partial), and the

Magdalene D. Wittmayer is Director of Testing in the Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois.

scholarship ratings and recommendations from the elementary schools. From the group of superior students, the selection committees in English, mathematics, and science choose those students whom they consider possible candidates for the Honors program. A list of these students is then sent to each elementary school involved with the request that the principal and teachers consider the list carefully and check the ratings which apply—recommended for English honors; recommended for Mathematics Honors; recommended for Science Honors; is highly motivated to achieve and succeed; assumes responsibility for his own work; budgets his time and organizes his work effectively; possesses a high degree of curiosity; possesses keen powers of observation; is highly imaginative; accepts criticism and suggestions well. They are also asked to add the names of any students whom they feel should be considered for the Honors program—and to question those whom they have reason to believe should not be considered. A telephone call to discuss these changes usually follows, and the amended list with ratings is then returned to the high school.

Each candidate on this list is then invited to participate in a special two-day testing session at the high school. He may decide to decline the invitation, but his acceptance carries with it no guarantee that he will automatically qualify for the program. The materials used at this time have included the *Ohio Psychological*, the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking*, the *STEP Battery*—level 2A, the writing of an essay, a spelling test, the *Minnesota Counseling Inventory*, the *California Study Methods Survey*, and a personal data sheet. (The composition of this battery will undoubtedly vary as we study the value of the data for our purposes and experiment with other instruments.)

All of this test data, with the exception of the information on the personal data sheet and the Minnesota profile, is assembled on one large sheet for boys and one for girls. These materials, together with the rating sheets from the elementary schools, go back to the selection committees which evaluate all the evidence and prepare a list of students to be invited to participate in their program. When all committees have completed their work of selection, a joint meeting is held to prepare a final list of candidates. This is attended by members of the administration, chairmen of departments, representatives from each selection committee and from the committee on exceptional children, the class counselors, the director of research, and the director of testing. The primary purpose of this meeting is to evaluate the students who are being considered for all three Honors level programs to make sure that such a student, if he accepts all three, will be able to carry such a program and still be able to participate in the life and activity of home, church, school, and community. By agreement of the science department, all freshmen invited for biology Honors must also be in the mathematics Honors program. Such adjustments are also made at this meeting.

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scholarship ratings and recommendations from the elementary schools. From the group of superior students, the selection committees in English, mathematics, and science choose those students whom they consider possible candidates for the Honors program. A list of these students is then sent to each elementary school involved with the request that the principal and teachers consider the list carefully and check the ratings which apply—recommended for English honors; recommended for Mathematics Honors; recommended for Science Honors; is highly motivated to achieve and succeed; assumes responsibility for his own work; budgets his time and organizes his work effectively; possesses a high degree of curiosity; possesses keen powers of observation; is highly imaginative; accepts criticism and suggestions well. They are also asked to add the names of any students whom they feel should be considered for the Honors program—and to question those whom they have reason to believe should not be considered. A telephone call to discuss these changes usually follows, and the amended list with ratings is then returned to the high school.

Each candidate on this list is then invited to participate in a special two-day testing session at the high school. He may decide to decline the invitation, but his acceptance carries with it no guarantee that he will automatically qualify for the program. The materials used at this time have included the *Ohio Psychological*, the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking*, the *STEP Battery*—level 2A, the writing of an essay, a spelling test, the *Minnesota Counseling Inventory*, the *California Study Methods Survey*, and a personal data sheet. (The composition of this battery will undoubtedly vary as we study the value of the data for our purposes and experiment with other instruments.)

All of this test data, with the exception of the information on the personal data sheet and the Minnesota profile, is assembled on one large sheet for boys and one for girls. These materials, together with the rating sheets from the elementary schools, go back to the selection committees which evaluate all the evidence and prepare a list of students to be invited to participate in their program. When all committees have completed their work of selection, a joint meeting is held to prepare a final list of candidates. This is attended by members of the administration, chairmen of departments, representatives from each selection committee and from the committee on exceptional children, the class counselors, the director of research, and the director of testing. The primary purpose of this meeting is to evaluate the students who are being considered for all three Honors level programs to make sure that such a student, if he accepts all three, will be able to carry such a program and still be able to participate in the life and activity of home, church, school, and community. By agreement of the science department, all freshmen invited for biology Honors must also be in the mathematics Honors program. Such adjustments are also made at this meeting.

Before the invitations to participate in the Honors program are issued the parents of all the students who were tested, as well as the students themselves, are invited to a meeting at which time the programs for our academically talented as well as our academically gifted students are discussed. This meeting affords an opportunity to stress the following facts:

1. That a student may be admitted to the program at a later date if his development warrants.
2. That a student may drop out of the program if it proves to be too much for him.
3. That students not in the Honors program will still be presented with a strong academic challenge.
4. That those invited for three programs consider carefully the responsibilities involved before making a final decision.
5. That attendance at summer school will enable a student to broaden his academic program and participate in more of the Honors program.

Questions from the floor indicate that parents are much concerned that their children are not penalized grade-wise by participation in the Honors program. Evaluation is always difficult, but we have attempted to meet this particular problem by assessing a student's achievement in the light of what is being offered and accomplished by the entire range of classes offered in each department on a particular grade level. Since these top ability students have not always been challenged, it is possible that some, who have poor work habits, will have difficulty getting started in an Honors program. However, if they really belong there—and make the necessary effort—they should be doing outstanding work long before the end of the first year. This is a point which needs to be made clear to students and parents.

The invitations are mailed out after this meeting and the students are asked to reply immediately so that the classes may be scheduled and the necessary program changes made. Since all Honors classes are smaller than the average for the school, the number invited is considerably smaller than the number tested. Most candidates seem to feel that they have been given careful consideration and accept the decision of the committees without further question. The fact that they see that we *have* moved students into the program at a later date provides an incentive for many students. In a few cases where parents have questioned the decision, the *Wechsler-Bellevue* was administered and the whole case then carefully reviewed.

Methods of selection, courses of study, and the evaluation of the students' work are all areas in our Honors program—in fact, in *all* our programs—which require constant study and improvement. We are fortunate in having an enthusiastic and dedicated staff willing to spend their time and effort in this direction.

Activating a Future Teachers Club

HARRY L. KOHN

THE recruitment of teachers is a national problem; the number of students who choose teaching for a career is diminishing; the loss of "local products" to "greener pastures" is increasing. McKeesport school officials hope to solve their problem by reversing these factors. To do so, they have activated an F.T.A. program. The McKeesport Chapter of the Future Teachers of America is sponsored by the McKeesport Education Association. Its program and activities are officially recognized by the administrative staff and the school district of the city of McKeesport. Both agencies cooperate to effect Section 14 of the Constitution of the McKeesport Education Association:

1. To acquaint the community and teachers with the need for a program of teacher recruitment
2. To aid the pupils in organizing a Future Teachers of America Club
3. To win and maintain the support of the administration for the activities of the club and to keep the administration informed of the plans and programs
4. To highlight the opportunities and rewards to be found in teaching
5. To aid in providing participation in school teaching experiences wherever possible
6. To provide an interesting program of varied activities

The President of the Education Association appointed the faculty adviser of the club and the administrative staff agreed to arrange for the F.T.A. to make a series of visitations to the various elementary schools in the school district. An elementary-school principal was appointed to coordinate the program. The elementary teachers were invited to participate and only those who agreed to have a club member spend a day with him or her (freedom was completely respected) participated in the program. The F.T.A. members were scheduled to visit one complete school day a month for the months of November, January, February, March, April, and May. (The program did not get underway until late October.)

The forty-one members originally proposed their preferences as to interest in kindergarten, primary, intermediate, or upper-grade work. (McKeesport has a Kdg. - 8 - 4 plan.) They later agreed to rotate the visits among all levels in order to observe their first choices in November and to make a choice again for May. To orient the teachers as to the objectives of and procedures for the days of visitation, the following letter was distributed:

Harry L. Kohn is Principal of the Walnut Street School, McKeesport, Pennsylvania.

FIELD VISITS BY FUTURE TEACHERS OF AMERICA

Teachers:

We shall try to assign a Future Teacher of America to your room for one whole day at least once during this school term.

These students are seniors in the high school and are interested in becoming teachers. Their experiences with you may have a profound effect upon whether they continue their interest in teaching, the level in which they may teach, or whether they would be interested in teaching in McKeesport.

They are to observe your room, your procedures in various learning areas. They may assist you with whatever small administrative tasks you may feel they can handle or even handle the class for a little while if you feel inclined to give that responsibility. If you do want the F.T.A. Member to help you, let such help come in the afternoon session after the person has had an opportunity to note the class and some procedures. However, do not leave the room while the F.T.A. is handling your class or a group in your room.

The order of assignment of seniors to teachers is not on the basis of consideration of superiority of teachers, but arranged on the placement of such people in all buildings according to their registered interests. Conditions permitting, all teachers who wish to have a Future Teacher of America spend a day with them will have the opportunity before the end of the school year.

HARRY L. KOHN, *Elementary Chairman*
DOROTHY SMEDLEY, *Adviser*

E.B.I. DAY

The success of the plan was immediate and enthusiastic. In fact, the visitation program progressed well enough to prompt the administration to use the F.T.A. members strategically during E.B.I. Day. On that day, the members working in pairs relieved the teachers who served on the E.B.I. Committee and those teachers who served as hosts or hostesses to the visitors. The following set of instructions was given to each member of the F.T.A.:

*F.T.A. Procedures for E.B.I. Day**Instructions:*

With few exceptions the members of the F.T.A. will be working in pairs. The reason for the doubling of our activities on March 19th is that the teacher whom you are visiting will be absent from her class for about two hours and we will have to double our efforts to make certain that there will be no mishaps or confusion in any room.

March 19th is E.B.I. Day and all schools will be visited by prominent and interested businessmen. Some regular teachers will be used to act as hosts and hostesses for our guests. Therefore, some of the F.T.A. may be used in the morning to relieve the teacher or teachers who are to be used as hosts or hostesses.

When you are in charge of a room in the absence of the regular teacher, you are not to have the children engage in any physical activity in which an accident may occur. In any event, either the principal or a designated teacher

will be available to help you with any question or problem. Make sure that you know who that teacher is and where you can locate that teacher easily.

You are to report directly to your designated building. *Do not go to the high school.*

MISS DOROTHY SMEDLEY
DR. HARRY L. KOHN

The members raised questions which were answered at the meetings of the club during the activities period. Some of the more pertinent questions were: Is the training for special education more complicated than for any other teacher? Do the teachers use the flannel board for any subject other than arithmetic? In the kindergarten, the afternoon seemed so much better behaved than the kindergarten in the morning; why is this? Why do children act so attentive in one class and not in another?

To climax the program, the members completed a questionnaire which was devised to stimulate their thinking and make them analytical.

Future Teachers of America:

You would help us materially by preparing answers to the following questions:

1. Which level of learning had the greatest appeal to you?
Is this a change from your original plans?
2. Will you describe one outstanding teaching practice that you observed?
(You need not mention the name of teacher or school)
.
3. What were some of the things that you felt needed changed or would
have liked to change if you were the teacher?
.
4. What changes, if any, would you recommend in our program for the
Future Teachers of America?
.

In addition to the visitation program, the club approved and sponsored a program to honor the retired teachers and distributed certificates to their honored guests. Socially the Club had a picnic. The high-school authorities are of the opinion that the activity program of the F.T.A. was good for the students and the Club. Some of the members may decide against teaching, but it's better to have that decision before it's too late. Everyone feels that the program fulfilled its objectives and that the Future Teachers of America Chapter will grow and help the community.

An Experiment in Summer Counseling

MORRIS O. PHELPS

STONE Mountain High School has four hundred students. The teacher allotment does not permit a full-time counselor. Since the principal works on a twelve-month schedule, it was decided to use some of the time during the summer for brief educational counseling for all students. A postal card was sent to each student asking him to report at a specified time to discuss his placement for next year, his test results, his schedule for next year, and his long-range program of studies. Over sixty per cent of the students reported at the designated time. Other students called the school and made appointments for a time later in the summer. Approximately seventy-five per cent of the students took advantage of this opportunity for an individual conference. Several parents came with their children.

The interviews lasted an average of approximately seven minutes per student. The following points were discussed in each interview: (1) summer activities; (2) grades made last year; (3) results of tests taken during the last school year; (4) schedule for next year; (5) long-range program of studies; and (6) post-high-school vocational and educational plans. Several students were encouraged to revise their schedule and to take courses more in line with their abilities and past performances. Some students decided to take more and harder courses; other students decided to delay courses in which the chances of success were extremely doubtful.

In the brief time allotted, it was impossible to go into detail on any of the items except the schedule for the next school year. More time was spent with the seniors concerning post-school plans. Time was spent with freshmen in establishing better relationships between the student and the counselor. More time was spent with the other classes with long-range programs.

Since, in this situation, the principal was an experienced counselor and did the counseling himself, there were other residual benefits to the program. Some of these included:

1. The principal and student became better acquainted in a pleasant situation.

Morris O. Phelps is Principal of Stone Mountain High School, Stone Mountain, Georgia, and was president of the Georgia Association of School Counselors.

2. Students were helped to overcome the resistance of coming to the principal's office for assistance with problems.

3. The students and parents became aware of the nature of the work of the principal during the summer months.

4. The school secretary became personally acquainted with more of the students.

5. The students realized that the school was interested in each of them as an individual.

6. The principal discovered students who needed more extensive counseling service.

It is suggested that this experiment would have as much, or more, value in a large high school as in a small high school. Teams of selected teachers and counselors in the larger schools could perform this service in a brief period of time. If time permits, however, the principal might want personally to counsel at least one of the lower high-school grades each summer to help him establish better rapport with all students.

The Meaning of Good School Attendance

RICHARD M. KAYSER

THE first compulsory school attendance law in America was passed a little over one hundred years ago in 1852. By the year 1918 (sixty-six years later) each of the states had passed its own compulsory attendance law proclaiming the belief of its people that each of their children not only had the right to the benefits of an education but also an obligation to secure these advantages. Thus, something new had been added to the educational scene,—the belief (enforced by legislation) that the state has the authority to force a parent to provide an education for his child.

In its early history, attendance work was characterized by a punitive approach which led to negative concepts such as the "truant officer" or "hookey-cop." A century ago the only aim of the truant officer was to enforce the law regardless of circumstances surrounding the absence. There was practically no give-and-take in his method. Education at that time was for those who did well in the narrow academic offering of the school. There was practically no flexibility in the curriculum. In fact, the concept of individual differences had not yet been developed.

One hundred years of compulsory education have brought about many changes in our ideas about school attendance. The concept of maintaining good attendance through fear is outmoded and has no place in the philosophy of the modern school. The attendance worker no longer is an officer of the law whose sole or main purpose is that of enforcement and punishment of offenders. He is now a representative of the school, and his primary concern is to help the child get to school under conditions which will enable him to make the most of his own abilities and of the educational opportunities offered him in school. One aspect of psychology which is basic in our work is the fact that sheer force to break another's will is likely only to strengthen it. The person may succumb to our superior strength or position of authority, but no real change will occur unless something different happens inside of himself.

In a society where one's personal work is so much determined by his going or not going to school and it is the accepted pattern in his cultural group that he go, we need to recognize that it is this social force, this force of society, that really puts the "compulsory" in school attendance. The written law is only symptomatic of this. This is evidenced by the

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large percentage of children who now attend school beyond the age of legal compulsion. The focus of sound guidance and attendance work is essentially around the individual needs of children, helping them toward some resolution of their personal conflicts. The mere enforcement of the law itself is no resolution of the problem.

As a part of the enforcement concept, there has emerged an attitude about non-attendance. There is a tendency to be resentful with the child and family who do not see education as a right and privilege. There is a tendency to want to punish people or to threaten them for this particular symptom of maladjustment. This attitude has, to some extent, become a part of the fabric of school. The administrator, responsible for his school's record, wants a high percentage of attendance. The teacher is busy and wants children to keep up with the whole group. Even some parent organizations not so long ago put on pressure for the sake of trying to achieve one hundred per cent or a very high percentage of attendance. The non-attendant then becomes an obstacle and an irritant. Dealing with these children as obstacles or irritants, however, will not achieve a high percentage of attendance for a school.

A child's school attendance is determined largely by the conditions in which he lives. For example, if you examine the attendance statistics of almost any large city school system for the period of about five years just prior to the outbreak of World War II, you will find a general pattern of consistently good attendance. However, with the outbreak of the war, the attendance dropped sharply. Home life in many cases was disrupted. Fathers moved their families around from place to place seeking better paying jobs. War casualties broke up the family chain, resulting in severe emotional disturbance among members of the family. Housing became difficult, causing parents sometimes to separate their children. As the outcome of the war became evident and as hostilities ceased, the pattern of school attendance gradually improved until it was back to "normal." Here is a striking example of how the conditions under which children live do affect their school attendance.

In our struggle for better attendance, we must remember that school attendance is only a means to an end. The teacher's purpose is to teach, and the purpose of the attendance worker is to help the teacher achieve that goal. *When we promote school attendance for any other reason, we lose perspective and fail in our professional duty.* It is not so long ago that we remember attendance contests in some schools and home-room drives for perfect attendance. During such contests excitement was high, and frequently children too ill to be in school attended in order to maintain the perfect record of their group. We smile when we remember these practices, which are now nonexistent in the modern school. However, before we become too smug in pointing the finger at yesterday's school practices, perhaps we should look at today's methods of competition in some school systems.

It is a dangerous practice to make a comparison of raw attendance percentages and statistics among schools without taking into account the fact that many absences included in the data are legitimate and that there are vast differences among schools in many factors, such as the socio-economic level of families, standards of living, housing, clothing, food, physical fitness, possibility of obtaining adequate medical care, transiency, percentage of families where both parents are working, attitude of parents toward the importance of school, and numerous other differences—differences which make such comparisons not only invalid, but also unfair. This type of competition cannot be defended. To strive for better school attendance is commendable when it is achieved by improving the conditions under which children attend school and insofar as it is directed toward attaining the primary purposes of education. But to resort to pressure tactics and forced methods of producing high percentages of attendance in order to make a school "look good on paper" gives a warped viewpoint on attendance and, in the long run, really hinders opportunity for sustained improvement of children's attendance, educational achievement, and of home-school relations.

We talk a great deal about individual differences, but frequently we forget to apply this concept when we are dealing with children's school attendance. If two children have the same mental ability, should we expect the same results from each in either the matter of academic achievement or of school attendance when one of these children comes from a well-run, stable, happy home environment while the other comes from a broken, unhappy home or from one with severe problems of alcoholism, neglect, poverty, indifference toward school, tension, and general discord? The answer is obvious. Too often, when we are speaking in terms of individual differences, we think only in terms of intelligence or achievement in the scholastic area and forget that we also should take into account the differences in home environment, emotional stability, and social adjustment. We tend to establish a code of behavior to which we expect the child to conform whether he comes from a family that enjoys harmonious relationships, creative interests, and love and affection, or comes from a home characterized by continuous family quarrels, and physical and emotional deprivation. Who are we to design such a rigid pattern for living? How can we expect a child living under such handicaps to measure up to the child who has every advantage? *Children must be held accountable, but we must expect a different level of response from children according to their background, training, and stage of development.*

We have adopted certain practices of marking students based on the philosophy that a child in school will compete against himself and will be marked on what he has achieved in relation to his ability to achieve. The alternative is marking based on how he fares in reaching some arbitrary "standard of achievement" in competition with other members of the class with all of their vast range of abilities and individual differ-

ences. Why then should we expect identical results in attendance or apply the same standard of expected achievement in this area to students living in conditions so much different from each other?

Another thing which we so often lose sight of is the fact that there are tremendous differences among schools as well as among individual persons. For example, is it reasonable to expect that a school in a low socio-economic area would or should have the same percentage of attendance as a school of high socio-economic level? If comparisons between schools in the matter of undifferentiated attendance statistics are made, one cannot escape the obvious inference and resulting conclusion that each school is being placed in a position of having to try to reach the same, or nearly the same, "standard" percentage of attendance, or failing this, to be regarded by some as a poorly run school in this particular area. Here we have a situation of forced competition between schools operating in areas of highly different family cultural patterns, environments, and other factors. Since these factors make the schools so different and so unequal in the area of attendance, these comparisons are unfair and quite meaningless.

This does not mean that the schools should relax in their efforts to improve attendance. The truth of the matter is found in the opposite direction toward greater efforts at improved attendance, but with a different emphasis. Perhaps we could take the artificial, forced, and harmful competition out of the attendance picture. If we *have* to have competition in this area, let's try to put the competitors on an equal basis or at least take into account the *reasons* for absence as well as pattern of individual differences *among schools*. If this were done, then the expectation in comparing would be that some schools *naturally* will have a higher or lower rate of attendance than others and *that this is normal*. We should regard non-attendance as a matter focusing essentially around the individual needs and capabilities of children. Where non-attendance is unlawful or without good cause, we should regard it as a symptom of maladjustment, and our emphasis should be placed on efforts to diagnose and remedy the cause and, wherever possible, to prevent its recurrence. The progress of an individual school should be considered in relation to the conditions in which it has to operate. Statistics showing a school to be higher or lower than some other school which may be operating under an entirely different set of conditions may be ignored. Likewise, when we "mark" or "rate" or "evaluate" a child in attendance or behavior, we should consider his progress in relation to the conditions under which he lives. We should remember that there are *degrees* of adjustment and that we have to measure how a child progresses against the way the problem appeared when we first started working together on this problem. The child may never achieve what *we* consider to be a good adjustment, but it may be all that is possible for him at the time—it may be an improvement over what we first observed. We have to be willing to take his growth slowly and to

recognize that there may be setbacks. He may revert to his former annoying behavior; but, if he does this less often, and if we find there are greater lengths of time between these episodes and that they are less severe, then know that the child is making progress.

The causes that rest behind the behavior symptom of truancy are many and complex. In general, the roots of truancy may be found in the child himself, in the home, in the school, in the community, or, as is more often the cause, in various combinations of these.

The need to be like others is basic to human beings. This is especially true of the school child, because being like others makes him acceptable to the group. He knows that this acceptance depends upon his not being too different from others, and this is very important in the minds of most children. Because most children go to school, we can assume that the child who fails to go is experiencing some inner conflict because of his actions which are different from others in his group. Therefore, he must have a reason, which he thinks is important behind his willingness to pay such a high price for his non-conformity to social custom. From a good mental health standpoint no child can afford to be so different as to set himself off from others. It is because of this fact that we try to help the child, rather than confine our efforts only to enforcing a law relating to school attendance. Our honest concern for the child rather than a restrictive emphasis focused only upon a rule is the primary basis on which we can function in a helpful way. Such concern gives us the responsibility for trying to understand and correct, rather than to police and punish.

It is absurd to think that one person, or two persons, or three, or even four persons *alone* can alter basically the attendance pattern in a school whether that person be the assistant principal, counselor, school social worker, or some individual. The entire faculty should be interested in "selling" the school's program. If this does not occur, then there probably will be large numbers of children who will not "buy" what the school is offering. Promoting good school attendance is a responsibility of all persons in the school system. In modern school systems, it is generally recognized that, if a child is living in an adequate home and community environment and is physically, mentally, and emotionally well, he will *want* to attend school if he feels that the education he is receiving is worth while. Such a viewpoint means that the school social worker will approach his task as one of educational adjustment rather than of force. This does not in any way minimize the fact that with some children and adults there comes a time when it is in the best interest of the child and others concerned to bring the matter to the court or other proper legal authority for enforcement of the law. This concept envisions authority as a constructive foundation for help, not as a personal weapon. For some children and for some parents, unstable and insecure, only the firm authority of the court can provide the foundation upon which they will move toward any change. The court may provide a support for the

parent and child who are fearful of seeking or accepting other help and who may be quick to withdraw from their former position when they begin to appreciate their own responsibilities and no longer can blame others for their situation. For them only the sharp weapon of authority is powerful enough to bring into focus a realization of the need for help and to set free those forces within the individual which can build upon his unique strengths.

The teacher is at the heart of the educational process. His primary responsibility is to bring about pupil's maximum growth through proper instruction and direction of the group. The teacher is responsible for knowing which children are not able to use the classroom program effectively. Ideally, he should know this long before any symptoms of chronic truancy appear on the scene. In one published study on early school-leavers, the teachers were asked to describe the characteristics of early drop-out children. The teachers listed the characteristics as follows: the child who in never able to finish his work; who is fidgety; who cannot concentrate long enough to follow through on any project; who resists, and at times, openly defies suggestions and directions; the child who has no confidence in himself, is anxious and fearful; the one who just sits and dawdles; or the one who stays away from school on many excuses of doubtful illness; or the one who shows lack of home care and supervision. All these are symptoms of maladjustment, and they indicate that the child is not really entering into meaningful experience in the classroom.

The teacher has the responsibility to bring to the attention of the administrator and other school personnel the significant factors concerning children's use, or lack of use, of the school program. The administrator has the responsibility to see that these children are referred to appropriate sources of help. The thoughtful handling of absence must start with the teacher and be shared by other school personnel under the direction of the principal.

Among the possible causes or roots of truancy, a child's failure or fear of failure in school may play an important part in the child's developing a lack of confidence, a feeling of inadequacy, or a need to rebel. This may be failure in his subjects, failure in social relationships, failure to meet the sometimes exaggerated ambitions of his parents for a high status in one or all of these. This is an area of difficulty for all ages of children, but especially for adolescents. It may precipitate an increased rejection of him at home by his parents or bring ridicule from his brothers and sisters. Many of our most severe delinquencies are nurtured by a deep feeling of inadequacy and failure. Truancy often is the result of failure, especially when the failure causes shame and disgrace or when the child is rejected by his teachers or classmates, or feels that he is. To the child, truancy seems to be a logical escape from an unhappy or unbearable situation.

There is an attitude on the part of some persons that truancy *always* is *primarily* a school problem, and because of this attitude they do not regard it with the same degree of seriousness as stealing, destruction of property, sex delinquencies, trespassing, and the like. This is an unfortunate attitude. Many times truancy is a sign of delinquency already in an *advanced* state. Just because the symptom of truancy shows up in the school setting does not mean that it is necessarily and primarily a school problem. Many times the direct and indirect causes lie entirely outside the school environment and are only reflected in the school situation. Through truancy, the child tries to escape what he believes to be the source of his trouble, because so often it is in the school setting that his worries, fears, self-consciousness, feelings of inadequacy all come to the front. In reality a child's trouble may rest in the home and become evident in school. He may have been able to handle the emotional tensions to which he has been subjected at home. He may carry these tensions with him to school where he meets new stresses. He meets competitive relationships with large numbers of persons and he may have too low a reserve of emotional strength to meet the school's intellectual and social demands. Such a child often needs release for his tension through aggressive action or through intensive creative efforts. This need to escape and to release aggression explains, in part, the large number of children who are involved in other delinquencies at the same time they are truant from school.

The child who has experienced failure outside of school brings with him to school a real doubt of his ability to get along. If he has failed to win the love and affection of his parents, failed to get along with his brothers and sisters, then his fears of failure in school are reinforced by his past experience. He gets placed in a setting of physical confinement and restriction, which further increases his tension. Children do not regard escape from an unpleasant situation as being a failure. Therefore, escape often is their way of trying to solve the problems of their own situation. With an escape such as truancy, the child feels he is making some secondary gains. Perhaps he can remain with certain members of the family from whom he seeks affection. Maybe he finds companionship with others who also are truant. Here he finds a common bond of action and a means of establishing and holding a very uncertain, but, to him, needed friendship. He may even get a satisfaction in using truancy to defy and make trouble for a hated mother or father. This may make him feel important. As one adolescent boy remarked: "I can scare the life out of my old man when I rat school. Then he starts being nice to me and begs me to go back to school before I get him in trouble."

The school itself can cause anxiety in a boy or girl. The pressures of work and discipline can be too great for some children, thus adding to their tensions already accumulated from home. The child's difficulties increase to the point where he reacts either by withdrawal, in which he expresses his feelings against himself or by acting out against what he

sees to be the external cause of his trouble. Usually the teacher is the first focus of an attack. Feelings against a teacher can develop suddenly and reach an extreme intensity. Then the child's idea for a solution generally is not to escape a certain teacher, but rather to escape from school.

Parents' attitudes about school are influenced by their own early school experiences. Some of these parents remain indifferent to the importance we place on school attendance, because formal education was unimportant in their previous cultural environment. Others seem to exaggerate the value of school, seeing their own lack of education as the stumbling block in their own struggle for existence. They attempt to compensate for this lack by over-stressing education for their children. Such indifference or extreme eagerness has its effect on the child's own feeling about school. He either lacks the support of his parents or feels overly pushed by them.

While it is true that the primary cause of truancy often lies outside the school setting, it also is equally true that truancy usually is not touched off until the child has experienced a real loss of security, a real defeat or frustration in the school setting. In truancy, the timing in treatment is important. The child should be reached before he has experienced so much rejection and defeat that all of his hatred is focused upon the school.

One of the most important things for a school social worker to realize is that a correct diagnosis and understanding of underlying causes of a child's behavior and problems are not enough. He has to realize that the most comprehensive and penetrating understanding will not of itself help a child and that he must go beyond understanding alone. He must know how to reach out to the child or to his parent, how to share the child's or parent's feeling without becoming emotionally involved himself. He must know how to bring something into the picture so that the child or parent or both can find support in the direction of desirable change.

Our cultural pattern of family life provides for the support of children by one or both parents. If the job is well done, we think of the parents as successful, but if the job is poorly done, or not done at all, both parents and children suffer in their deviation from the accepted community pattern. For the child who comes from a broken home, or for the child whose home is inadequate, the school social worker needs to be alert to recognize feelings of unworthiness, frustration, and confusion which may be present. But no less does he need to be aware of what it means to the parent who has not measured up to society's expectations. The parent may be hurt, defensive, guilty, ashamed, confused, or even accepting of the situation; but this the school social worker must remember—in our culture a parent who fails to provide a home for his children or who provides an inadequate one, has some feeling about it. We cannot help

him or the child until we understand something of the quality and force of this feeling .

The quality of a child's relationship to his home is not one that can be learned through questioning. Indeed, direct questioning may cause a parent to build a wordless wall between himself and the school social worker. If the school social worker is to understand the child's problems, the parent must talk freely and portray the situation as he sees it. Under the fire of direct questions, which all too often carry implications of condemnation or hostility, parents may be resentful or protective of themselves and their children.

Parents usually respond to a willingness to listen and a wish to understand. They respond, too, to careful explanation of school requirements and policies. They generally appreciate the value the school sets on them and their parenthood and the school's recognition of their difficulties. Tact, skill, and often almost infinite patience are needed to work constructively with parents and children whose life situations are unhappy or unproductive. Sometimes the school social worker must listen to bitter complaints of parents against school or child. These complaints may or may not seem valid, but they are important, because they show the thinking and feeling of the parent. "Being heard" of itself is often therapeutic for the parent, releasing pent-up tensions, and clearing the way for more positive thinking. The school social worker who hears parents' complaints through to the end and himself remains understanding and objective is exercising one of the great skills available to him for helping people.

Because it is so clearly true that the home is the most powerful determinant on a child's behavior, it is an easy next step to blame the homes of difficult children for being what they are. To blame children or parents for having an inadequate home is as useless and futile as to blame a parent for having cancer. Physical ills cannot be cured by scolding or criticism; neither can the poor home be changed that way. A poor home is a social ill, the result of inherited and experienced factors. A home visit is not an occasion for collecting information which later is sorted and catalogued to become the case history of a child. Rather it is a dynamic experience made up of the interaction of two or more personalities. Some of its greatest values are those of the relationship the school social worker develops and sustains in the home while he is there.

Helping implies that the person being helped is himself participating in whatever is happening to him. The child or adult must be actively entering into the helping process if he is to achieve real progress in his social, emotional, or academic adjustment. Except in rare instances, the school social worker will visit homes alone, because he knows that the understandings he seeks in the homes of children are deeply personal. Such things are shared by the family more easily with one outside (the home) person than with two or more. There can be a real helping and

healing process in the person-to-person relationship of one school social worker to a child or parents. The importance of getting the parents' story of the situation told in their own way cannot be over-estimated. Equally important is the school social worker's clear explanation of the situation as the school sees it, together with an interpretation of the school's policies and practices as they affect the child. Not only does the school social worker take to the home the school's point of view, but, in turn, he brings back the home's viewpoint. The school social worker is conscious of the fact that many parents will see the whole school in terms of their knowledge of this one person. Consequently, he strives to use the tremendous potential of his role in its impact upon home-school relationships to strengthen respect and understanding of each one for the other.

The Andover Scholarship Program

JAMES R. ADRIANCE

FOR many years the Andover Scholarship Program has played a significant part in the life of the school. It has been made possible by special endowments, annual gifts from individuals and foundations, and contributions from the Andover Alumni Fund. Last year (1958-59) more than \$230,000 had been expended to help 229 boys obtain an Andover education, thus confirming the statement in the Phillips Academy Constitution that "this Seminary shall be ever equally open to youth of requisite qualifications from every quarter."

BASIC PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE ANDOVER SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM

Phillips Academy is open to any qualified boy, without regard to the financial position of his parents. Since fewer than ten per cent of American families today can afford an Andover education for their sons, a well-developed scholarship program plays a vital role in making Phillips Academy a national public school. Once a candidate is judged worthy of admission on the basis of character and academic promise, the amount that his family is expected to pay is determined solely by the financial need of that family. The fairest way of determining the financial need of a family is to require the parents of each applicant to submit a detailed financial statement in writing.

PROCEDURE IN THE ANDOVER SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM

Admission to Phillips Academy

The first step in applying for financial aid at Andover is to go through the regular admission procedure described in the school catalogue. There is no distinction made between scholarship and non-scholarship applicants in the processing and selection of boys for admission to the Academy. Thus, in order to be considered for financial assistance, a boy need only be successful in meeting the competition for admission.

Determining the Size of a Scholarship Award

Once a boy, applying for scholarship assistance, has been admitted to Phillips Academy, the confidential financial statement submitted by his parents is used to determine the size of his award, if any. This form is sent to the parents in December and should be completed and returned in early January of the year of admission. The procedure used in determining the size of the award is closely modeled on that developed by

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the College Scholarship Service, and resembles, for most cases, that used with Form 1040 in computing the Federal Income Tax. In brief, this computation procedure consists of determining and then evaluating the following data:

- a. The net income of the family before taxes
- b. The allowances, if any, to be made for other dependents (both children and adult), for educational expenses of other children in school or college, for unusual medical expenses, for certain types of debts, and for other special circumstances.

With the net income and total allowances determined, these figures are applied to a table similar to the one used with Form 1040 of the Income Tax, and a dollar figure is obtained indicating what the family should be expected to pay from income toward their son's total educational expenses for the nine months of the school year. This figure is then compared to the offer made by the family on the confidential statement, and, if necessary, a compromise figure may be reached. This figure is then subtracted from the student's total estimated budget for the nine months of the school year, and the result is the scholarship grant awarded. In instances where the student lives at a considerable distance from Andover, the school makes a travel allowance of everything in excess of \$25 for each of three round trips a year by railway coach. While there is no hard-and-fast policy about asking parents to contribute from assets, families with substantial amounts of liquid assets should realize that these will be taken into consideration when determining the size of an award.

The following table gives the parents a general idea of what is expected of them by way of contribution from income toward the student's total expenses for the school year. It should be emphasized at the start that these figures are simply norms for cases with no unusual aspects, and, furthermore, that the Admissions and Scholarship Committee treats each application individually and follows no flexible formula. If there are other children in the family at college or private school, if there

NORMAL EXPECTED CONTRIBUTION FROM FAMILY INCOMES
OF DIFFERENT SIZES

Annual Family Income (before taxes)	Number of dependent children in family including the applicant				
	1	2	3	4	5
\$2,000	\$ 250	\$ 185	\$ 145	\$ 120	\$ 100
4,000	550	445	370	305	240
6,000	885	685	605	525	435
8,000	1250	965	840	755	660
10,000	1750	1370	1165	1020	905
12,000	2300	1805	1535	1350	1210
14,000	2925	2295	1935	1705	1520

are unusual medical expenses, if only one parent is living, if the mother as well as the father is working, if there are aged dependents in the family, or if there are other unusual circumstances, these norms will be reduced, in some cases appreciably. When these qualifications are kept in mind, however, this table should serve as a useful guide for parents who are attempting, in most cases for the first time, to estimate what they can contribute toward their son's educational expenses.

Contribution Procedure in a Sample Case

Basic Data—A three-child family, living in Detroit, with a net income of \$7200. The youngest child is at a private kindergarten where the tuition is \$200 a year. The mother expects to have an operation during the coming year, at an estimated cost of \$1,000 and the family has a debt of \$1,000 on a new car.

Procedure—Both the \$200 expense for the youngest child and the \$1,000 for the mother's operation are allowable. The debt for the auto is not, it being assumed that the expense of a car is a normal one for the great majority of American families. Thus the total allowances would be \$1,200. A family with a net income of \$7,200, with \$1,200 in allowances, would, according to our computation manual, be expected to contribute \$645 toward their son's total school expenses for the nine months of the school year. We know that the Andover fee is \$1,600, and, in this instance, we estimate an additional \$350 in extra expenses, not counting travel. The family has offered to pay \$500 toward their son's expenses. There are no sizable assets.

The Scholarship Committee now examines the parents' confidential statement to determine the basic financial strength of the family, aside from net income. In assessing a family's financial strength, the Committee considers savings, investments, mortgages, indebtedness, and special circumstances. If the family's basic financial position appears strong, the Committee may believe that the full payment indicated by the computation table can be met. In this case that would be \$650, rounding the \$645 off to the nearest \$50 and would mean an award of \$1,300, plus the travel allowance explained above. If, on the other hand, the family's financial position appears weak, the Committee might move closer to the family offer of \$500 and ask the family to pay, for example, \$550. This would mean an award of \$1,400, plus travel allowance.

Position of Scholarship Boys in School

Boys on scholarship at Phillips Academy are treated in exactly the same way as non-scholarship boys—with one exception. They are all asked to do about four hours a week of useful work around the school, as office boys, dining-hall workers, library assistants, and so on. The parents of a boy on scholarship need have no fear that their boy is in any way a "second-class citizen." For many years, scholarship boys have participated in every important school activity to a much greater extent

than their numbers in school would lead one to expect, and each year many of the most coveted undergraduate offices and honors go to them.

Renewal of Scholarships

Scholarships at the Academy are awarded for one year only. Each year the Scholarship Committee asks the parents of boys on scholarship to fill out a new confidential statement if they wish to have an award renewed, and each year the Committee recomputes what the family should pay according to the financial data presented. If a family's financial position is virtually unchanged, the same amount of aid can be expected.

The Scholarship Committee does not expect every scholarship boy to be on the honor roll. It does expect each boy to do the best he is capable of and to be a good citizen in the school community. If it believes that a boy is not taking full advantage of his opportunities at Andover, it may decide not to renew an award, thus releasing the money for the use of a more deserving candidate.

An Adequate Education for Each American Youngster

EMORY C. PARKS

THIS article is not in rebuttal to any particular publication or author, but it is intended to report to the parents of the youngsters in the American schools that our pupils appear to be choosing courses wisely and are receiving a well-balanced program of studies. Many articles in popular publications would lead us to believe that most American youngsters, unless dictated to by stringent requirements, will elect to deprive themselves of an adequate education. Some writers assure us that our only salvation lies in developing a curriculum which is of absolute value to every person and not allow any deviation therefrom. Ironically, this suggestion is made as a fresh, new idea, when actually we have spent scores of years working our way out of this very type of system.

Since the dawn of recorded history, each age has had its "required" courses ranging from wrestling and archery to music and Latin. Today there are some who would have us believe that all pupils should be required to take at least four years of English, history, science foreign language, mathematics, literature, public speaking, *etc.* In fact, it has been advocated that we scrap the whole system of American education and substitute the Russian curriculum which some feel is so far advanced over ours. This, in spite of the fact that less than one tenth of one per cent of all pupils going through our educational institutions will choose to live in Russia—what about the other 99.9 per cent? Others would have us believe that every pupil would be best prepared by spending his school years reading and analyzing the great heritage of literature that has been preserved through the ages. More recently the cry is that every pupil should and must become a scientist.

Each of these suggestions is made in good faith and, I feel, has some merit. However, each stops short of offering that type of curriculum that can and should be the standard in our society. Why not propose that each pupil should be required to take the courses that would be of greatest value to him in becoming a wholesome, functioning citizen in this democracy of ours? I would prefer to interpret "required" in this instance to mean counseled. The key to the problems of public education in America lies in understanding that the American educational system must be built to fit *all* educable children in a free, democratic, and capitalistic nation. Certainly the pupils with the ability and need

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for a highly scholastic program should be encouraged to select this type of curriculum; however, it would be pure folly to require that those not mentally or emotionally equipped to benefit from this type of program enroll just for the experience. We have many pupils in public schools who could take physics or chemistry for any number of years and still remain completely ignorant of the laws and principles involved in these courses. We have others who are capable of understanding the most complex science or mathematics course, yet have no interest or motivation in this direction at this time and, too, would realize little or no benefit from these courses. These two examples point out the essential feature of education in a democracy that, in a measure, suggests the only curriculum possible in a democratic society; namely, a comprehensive curriculum to serve the needs of all levels of ability and the diverse needs of all the children of all the people. This is not a defense of the small high school which is unable to meet the wide range of needs of the pupils, but rather implies that a high school must be large enough to provide a diverse and comprehensive program.

The American public schools, like the educational institution of any other country, are designed, primarily, to provide experiences for youngsters that will help each develop into an adult citizen that is both adequate unto himself and a contributing member to his society. This is true for both the extremely intelligent, the below average, and the great average group of youngsters in terms of ability.

Education is an instrument of national policy, both in the United States and in Russia. Thus, the aims and goals of the public schools of the United States should be compatible to the concept of the society in which we live. Democracy is dedicated to the idea that the individual is of supreme importance. Not the political state, not the economic system, not any particular social or cultural level, but the dignity and worth of each individual as a human being are central. This is the prime difference between the American and dictatorial ideas of society. One places the individual in prime position, while the other places the social group first. It is ironic that we give much lip-service to this ideal, while at the same time propose we try to mold each of the school pupils into a replica of every other pupil.

If we can accept the idea that the public schools are for all the children of all the people and that our objectives are to provide experiences that will make each child as wholesome as possible, then our curriculum is defined for us. Our courses must be so strict as to challenge the very brightest student, and so flexible as to provide meaningful experiences for the average and below average youngsters. Any attempt to restrict the experiences to certain specified ones, immediately deprives some children, either the very bright or the below average, of the possibility of developing to the extent of his potential. The crux of the problem stems from the fact that the public schools should and must provide for all levels of ability and all degrees of social, economic, and

cultural development. A very simple, yet rough measure of ability groups, will divide our total pupil population into three categories: 16 per cent above average, 68 per cent average, and 16 per cent below average, in terms of scholastic potential. In addition to this division, personality studies lead us to believe that each person is a unique individual, separated spatially from every other individual, and with unique likes, attitudes, physical structures, as well as many other traits and characteristics. In the light of this, it seems that we should be striving to provide a more diversified program of experiences rather than attempting to be more restrictive.

We certainly haven't found the one best way to educate our youngsters. We need to do more and more research in attempting to enrich the program for the gifted. We need to find more and better ways of making courses and experiences more meaningful. We need to find ways of financing our schools so that the very best teachers can be kept in the classroom rather than seeking employment in industry in order to eat regularly. In the final analysis, we don't really *educate* people. We give them an opportunity to learn. The more meaningful the opportunity to learn, the greater the probability that our young people will carry on in the fine tradition that each of us holds so dear.

We, in Independence, feel that a great deal of the quality of education selected by the pupil is in direct proportion to the individual and group counseling available. Educational counseling can very well be the prime difference in whether a pupil elects the so-called "frills" or uses his talents and energy in becoming a more wholesome person. In reviewing the advanced enrollment of the freshmen and sophomore classes for the school year 1958-1959, we are led to believe that they are choosing wisely. Some interesting results of this advanced enrollment are:

We find 48 pupils who could be classified as gifted in our present freshmen class. Of these 48, we find that 41 chose to enroll for 6 classes, or the maximum, during the school day. This means that only 7 chose to have one period during the day for study while the remaining 41 chose to study and prepare lessons on their own time. Forty-seven out of the 48 elected to take algebra during their freshman year and pre-enrollment shows that 27 have elected to take plane geometry the next year. Twenty-two pupils elected to take general science during the freshman year and 19 have indicated biology as a choice for the sophomore year. Twenty-one pupils enrolled in a foreign language the first year and 25 have selected a language for the next year. Thirty-five pupils elected speech during their freshman year. These electives are in addition to the regular requirements of English and citizenship or world history.

In following the progress of these gifted pupils, we find that almost every one of them is involved in many activities outside the classroom. Student council and the many other activities organized to provide enriched experience for pupils are used by these pupils as further chal-

lenges. We are constantly challenged to find better ways to provide these and all others who look to our schools for educational guidance. These superior pupils are chosen as an example to point out the fact that a comprehensive program, diversified enough to educate all pupils, will also provide experiences for the superior or the below average if proper guidance is given. Establishing a rigid requirement, in terms of having every pupil required to take specified courses, would tend to deprive many pupils of an adequate educational program and, perhaps not significantly, change the enrollment pattern of our advanced pupils.

Although we are in the midst of rapidly changing ideas in the realm of scientific achievement, we must not be panicked into unreasonable and widespread changes until experience proves that these changes are for the betterment of the American educational system. In evaluating our present program, as well as proposed changes, we must keep our frame of reference—an adequate education for each American youngster—clearly defined. Certainly, many of our present practices are incompatible with this frame of reference and we are constantly seeking means to change these practices. In the same manner, each new proposal must stand this critical evaluation.

Social Adjustment Classes

THOMAS O. LAWSON

IDEALLY, a school system should maintain a special school for those pupils who are unable to adjust or conform to a normal classroom situation. Because of the expense and because of geographical limitations this kind of school is not always possible. A substitute program in the Los Angeles City Schools has been a program of special classes within a school made possible by the assignment of a reserve teacher. Because of the need for this kind of program in a junior high school of 2,070 pupils located in the Los Angeles Harbor area, it has been necessary to take additional teacher time from the master program in order to provide a Social Adjustment class each period of the day.

There are many philosophies regarding an adjustment program. Some feel that problem pupils should be placed under a single teacher in a separate room and completely segregated from the normal school situation. The segregation idea has been carried to the extreme of separate lunch and nutrition periods. Our feeling has been that a pupil should be taken only from those classes in which he is causing a disturbance and disrupting the instructional program. In those classes in which he shows no deviation and in which he is being successful, we have felt that removal was not justified. The majority of assignments to adjustment classes have been made from academic classes; very few have been made from the shop or homemaking classes, and hardly any from the physical education classes.

PURPOSE

The purpose of the social adjustment classes is to provide a place for the pupil who rebels at performing tasks which, to the normal pupil, are only routine. The ultimate aim is to create a desire on the part of the assigned pupil to become socially acceptable and to desire to make an effort in his class work. Although the adjustment classes provide a place to which persistently non-conforming pupils may be assigned, thus enabling staff members to teach more effectively, perhaps more important is the fact that the problem pupil is able to receive individual attention and help.

Since the pupils assigned have not been able to adjust or to succeed in a normal classroom situation, it is felt that they should not be faced with the same difficulties in the adjustment class. A low-pressure situa-

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tion is necessary if adjustment, or rehabilitation, of these pupils is to be effected. Small classes make possible individual attention and mixed groups (grades) make individual work necessary. The aims of the class are: (1) to establish a mutually satisfactory teacher-pupil relationship; (2) provide a situation in which the pupil may experience success, however small that may be; and (3) to encourage in the pupil development of habits of study and behavior which will enable him to succeed in the normal classroom.

ORGANIZATION

In order to assign a pupil to an adjustment class, the teacher writes a detailed request and discusses it with the vice principal. This request provides the basis for sending a letter to the home, notifying the parent of the assignment and requesting help from the home to get the pupil back into the regular school program. Since no credit is given for the class, this acts as a pressure on the pupil, as well as on the parent, to effect the pupil's return to regular class. When the pupil is eventually returned to class, the parent is again notified by mail.

We have six different teachers for the seven mixed adjustment classes during the school day. Classes are held in different rooms in order to avoid any "stigma" that might go along with a special room or teacher being connected with "bad" boys and girls. Teachers are selected on the basis of their liking for, and sincere interest in young people especially those who are socially and emotionally disturbed. A great deal of understanding and insight into the problems of this particular group is necessary, as well as an expressed desire on the part of the teacher to be connected with this program. Frequent meetings are held with the adjustment teachers to discuss effective methods and techniques and to keep the program a going, instructional device. To be effective and successful, the teacher must spend much time and effort with each assigned pupil. This includes a thorough knowledge of the pupil's background, obtained from the cumulative record cards and anecdotal records kept in the counselor's office; health record; referral records kept in the vice principal's office; and from conferences with the teacher from whose class he has been removed. The adjustment teacher confers with the regular teacher upon assignment of the pupil and again when he feels that the pupil is ready to return to a regular classroom environment. Even after return to the regular class, frequent check-ups by the adjustment teacher are invaluable.

EFFECT ON INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

In evaluating the adjustment program, each member of the faculty was asked how, in his opinion, it improved the instructional program in the regular classroom. All teachers agreed that:

1. Removal of the recalcitrant pupil improves the atmosphere of the classroom by relieving pressure caused by him. This enables the teacher to

devote his full time to teaching those who are willing and who want to learn without interference.

2. The knowledge that certain pupils can be removed from the classroom gives the teacher a "safety valve," reduces tension, and builds teacher morale.

3. Removal of the problem pupils eliminates the disturbing influences that prevent the learning process from taking place most effectively.

4. Placing a pupil in adjustment may relieve a classroom situation and permits effective teaching for the remainder of the class which has been disintegrating because one pupil has been willful and uncooperative.

5. It is not a confession of weakness on the part of a teacher to recommend a pupil for assignment to the adjustment class. It is not fair to him or the other pupils to keep a pupil who shows no intention of considering the rights of the teacher or the other pupils.

6. Other pupils are impressed by the procedure and may be discouraged from following a pattern which may lead to a similar result in their own experience. Many pupils who do "follow the leader" in disturbing-type behavior will conform to acceptable standards when the leader is removed.

BENEFIT TO PUPILS

In the opinion of the faculty the adjustment classes are of direct benefit to pupils by:

1. Placing persistently non-conforming pupils in an environment where they are able to take stock of themselves and become aware of the values derived by adjusting to the requirements of a regular classroom

2. Giving them an opportunity to solve their own problems

3. Affording an opportunity to be helped individually and to know that someone wants to help, is concerned about him, and cares what happens

4. Providing small classes in which the pupils have an opportunity to work at a speed and rate within their capabilities, thus enabling them to experience some degree of success and to develop proper work habits

5. Providing a low-pressure classroom situation for pupils who are disturbed emotionally, scholastically, or socially, thus releasing some of the pressure of routinized classwork and help the pupil to re-establish a relationship on a more positive basis

6. Relieving the pupil of the pressure of maintaining a bad reputation by showing off before his classmates to cover up his deficiencies

7. Providing an opportunity to teach the pupil that there are pleasant methods of control; that conforming can be fun; and that his conflicts with the teachers and other pupils are basically within himself and not the fault of anyone else

8. Allowing a "cooling off" period for both pupil and teacher and thus improving the morale of both

9. Enabling problem pupils to get their "feet on the ground" before their non-conformity leads them into more serious anti-social behavior. Many are not really in need of a heavy disciplinary program and their other classes are often quite satisfactory.

EFFECTIVE METHODS

The adjustment teachers feel that some of their most effective methods are:

1. Personal counseling with each individual. Engage him in relaxing and casual conversation so that he will reveal his interests and the topics about which he likes to talk. Say pleasant things to which he can give pleasant answers. Share his failures and successes. Show genuine concern over low marks and difficulties. Display sincere pleasure when he gets a good grade or achieves self-success.

2. Make certain the pupil understands why he is in the adjustment class and make him understand that you are there to help him.

3. Let him know exactly what is expected of him and what he can do to return to regular class. Explain the daily program thoroughly and completely.

4. Give him work to do immediately, in no case later than the second day.

5. Contact the regular teacher as soon as he is assigned, to find out his problems and get his assignments.

6. Keep in contact with the regular teacher and report on the pupil to the teacher at frequent intervals.

7. Provide simple, attainable goals within the capabilities of each pupil.

8. Establish and retain a folder for each pupil with his work and assignments in the adjustment classroom.

9. Be prepared to furnish any and all materials needed for each pupil.

10. Require that the pupil be in his seat with his materials before the tardy bell.

11. Make certain that some work is turned in each day to be corrected and that a test is given frequently.

12. Give a grade for cooperation and work habits very day.

13. Give some group activity such as discussion of current events for a short period each day.

14. Have contests similar to a spell-down, with teams and score keeping.

15. Use mimeographed lesson sheets with questions and a space provided for answers on the same page.

SUMMARY

During the spring semester, one hundred pupils had been assigned to adjustment classes. Of these, all but twenty-three had been returned to their regular classes at the end of the semester. Of the number returned to regular class, only eight had been returned to adjustment class a second time, and none were returned more than once.

It is interesting to note that in a school of 2,070 boys and girls, the one hundred who have been assigned to the special classes represent five per cent of the student body. As would be expected, some of the boys and girls were assigned for more than one adjustment period per day—1 pupil, 4 periods; 5 pupils, 3 periods; 15 pupils, 2 periods, and 79 pupils, 1 period.

It has often been said that the eighth grade, the second semester in particular, represents the turning point in behavior patterns of the junior high-school age group. In surveys that have been made regarding the preference of teachers for age levels, the eighth grade has always been

the last choice. The boys and girls assigned to these special classes are summarized by grade and sex below:

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Total</i>
A9	16	9	25
B9	15	8	23
A8	15	14	29
B8	5	6	11
A7	4	6	10
B7	1	1	2
Total	56	44	100

These statistics represent only one semester of the program, so interpretation at this time would not be valid, but they do indicate a preponderance of candidates in the A8 group. The summary chart also indicates that 75 per cent of pupils removed from class were the upper division, or older boys and girls age 13 to 15 years. The ratio of boys and girls in the ninth grade is two boys to one girl; it evens out in the eighth grade; and in the lower division it shows three more girls than boys.

It is felt that the number of boys and girls assigned during the semester and the relatively small number of "repeats"—that is, those whom it has been necessary to re-assign to the adjustment class—indicates some degree of success with the program. This degree of success is due, we feel, to the soundness of the program, to the cooperation of the faculty, and, in particular, to the efforts, interest, and hard work of the adjustment teachers.

A Keen-Age Romance

GORDON GRINDSTAFF

"THIS semester," announced the vice principal, "we're going to try something new. Instead of encouraging our students to strive for elusive goals such as learning for the sake of learning and knowing for the worth-whileness, we're going to establish *tangible* goals. We'll specify exact criteria for pupils to accumulate facts and grades and diplomas."

"How? How?" chorused the teachers, in disbelief.

"Merely by the use of Keen Stamps."

"Keen Stamps?" queried Isabelle Pape.

"Yes. Keen Stamps," solemnly answered the vice principal.

He held up a sheet of perforated squares which looked like postage stamps.

"Keen Stamps will indicate the keenness which students acquire. The stamps will be the measuring sticks for all courses of study in our school.

"For example," he continued, "students will receive Keen Stamps with each group of spelling words they learn. They'll get Keen Stamps for each fact they acquire about the Civil War. Keen Stamps will be issued for the mastery of each part of speech.

"As the student collects Keen Stamps, he'll paste them in this album," the assistant principal said as he displayed a small, thin book. He opened the cover to show a blank page.

"When each of these pages is filled the pupil will set aside the book; and then, at the end of the term, he'll turn in all of his Keen Stamp Books at once."

"Then what happens?" gasped Robert Rudder.

"Then he receives a grade," stated the vice principle. "He'll earn a C for 4 books filled with Keen Stamps and a B for 7½ books."

"And an A?" interrupted Buford Button in eager anticipation.

"Twelve full volumes," answered the VP.

"How exciting!" said Eliza Effort enthusiastically. "This may be the solution to education's ills!"

"Now just one minute," retorted Isabelle Pape. "Education isn't that simple. You can't say that you've made the grade when you've collected 20 books of Keen Stamps . . . or a hundred . . . or a thousand. People haven't necessarily learned to express themselves clearly when they can recite parts of speech. All that a deskful of Keen Stamps really represents is . . . well, a deskful of Keen Stamps."

Gordon Grindstaff is Assistant Principal of Wilmette Junior High School, 17th and Spencer Avenues, Wilmette, Illinois.

"I wish you wouldn't put a damper on the discussion, Miss Pape," said Mr. Button. "Keen Stamps sound like such a keen idea. And I do like to see students collect things."

"Quantity is the Keen in Keen Stamps," continued Miss Pape, ignoring Mr. Button's interruption. "Quantity *isn't* the key to education. Great Number of Facts is important, to be sure. But in themselves, they don't give an adequate or accurate picture of educational results which ought to be."

"We could even have changed the school song," thought Mr. Button out loud, "to 'Keen Grow the Lilacs'—or 'Keen Is the Color of My True Love's Stamps.'"

"Consider a real goal of education," Miss Pape continued, "... learning to be critical, to analyze what you see and hear. How would you measure *that* in Keen Stamps?"

"Some folks do," said Miss Effort.

"Some folks try to," replied Miss Pape. "But their picture of education, as the feller says, ain't so keen!"

"Giving Keen Stamps still was a keen idea," said Mr. Button in a disappointed voice. "Ah, well" he sighed. "Such is the ending of a Keen-Age Romance."

The Staying Power of College Students

DAN A. FULTS
and BOB L. TAYLOR

WHAT is the staying power of college students? This problem was considered in a recent study conducted at a large state University in the Middle West. The purpose of the study was to describe the performance of students entering the University from the secondary schools of the state.

LIMITATIONS TO AND PROCEDURES OF INVESTIGATION

In the study, the sample included 2,462 students from the 44 high schools of the state sending the largest number of students to the University. The design of the study called for a sample of 50 students in each of the high school sub-samples, but this sized sample was not achieved for every high school although five (1948-52) entering classes were traced through their undergraduate years at the University. Students who had transferred from other institutions or who did not have a complete set of orientation test scores were excluded from the study. Probably some students were classified as dropouts who, in reality, finished their degrees at other institutions, who graduated under other names, or who completed their baccalaureates after prolonged absences from campus.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Presented in Figure 1 is the distribution of median scores by high schools for this group of students on the Freshman Orientation Tests.¹ A study of Figure 1 gives insight into the character of the group. The median² for the 2,462 students on the A.C.E. *Psychological Examination* was at the 46th percentile. This placed the median for the group slightly below the national average for entering college freshmen on this set of norms, but the difference certainly was not great enough to feel that the group varied from the norm in this respect. On the *Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test C2*, the median percentile for the sample of students was at the 42nd percentile. This was below the national average on the

¹ *Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension, Higher Level*, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J. (Several forms were used.)

Carpenter, M. F., and others, *Cooperative English Test, Provisional Forms OM and PM*, Cooperative Testing Service, New York.

Thurstone, L. L., and Thurstone, Thelma G., *American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen*, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J.

² Medians were used because the scores were in percentiles.

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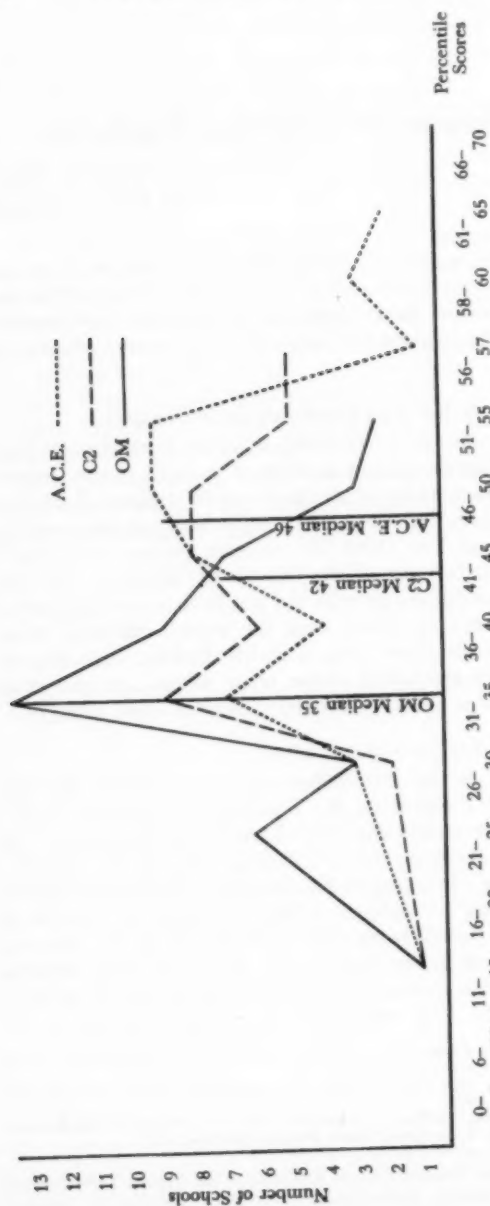


Figure 1. Distribution of Median Scores by High Schools on the Orientation Tests

set of norms for entering college freshmen. Finally, the median percentile on the *Cooperative English OM* for the group, was at the 35th percentile. This was half a standard deviation below the national norm for this achievement test.

While, according to the test norms, this sample of students was of about average mental ability for entering college freshmen, they were below the national norms on the reading test and English grammar test. Of course, the question may be raised as to how valid these norms were for this particular group of students. Since the norms for these tests were established in 1938-1939, the poor showing simply may reflect the changes in the high-school English curricula of the last 20 years. On the other hand, the policy of requiring only three years of English for high-school graduation and the policy of accepting all comers at the University may provide a partial explanation to the poor performance.

What was the staying power of this group of students? The dropout rate for this sample of students is shown in Figure 2. The greatest number of dropouts occurred between the end of the freshman year and the end of the sophomore year; however, there was a high dropout rate during the second semester of the freshman year. There were far fewer dropouts in the junior year, while the senior year was the most stable. The median percentage of students graduating at the University for the 44 high schools, as shown in Figure 2, was 42 per cent of the entering freshmen.

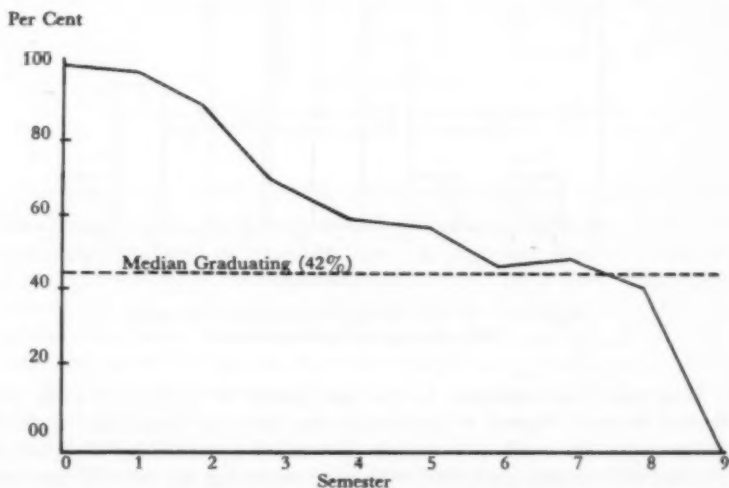


Figure 2. Median Percentage of Entrants Completing Each Semester and the Median Per Cent Graduating

When considered by their high school of origin, was there much variation in the percentage of graduates? Figure 3 indicates the percentage distribution by high schools for the students who were graduated from the University. While the median percentage graduating was 42 per cent, when considered by high schools, the percentages of students graduated varied over a considerable range. Sixteen per cent of the students entering from one high school were graduated, while at the other extreme 59 per cent of the entrants were graduated. Most of those who dropped out did so during the first two years of their programs, with the greatest number of dropouts coming between the end of the first semester of the freshman year and at the end of the sophomore year.

Number of Schools

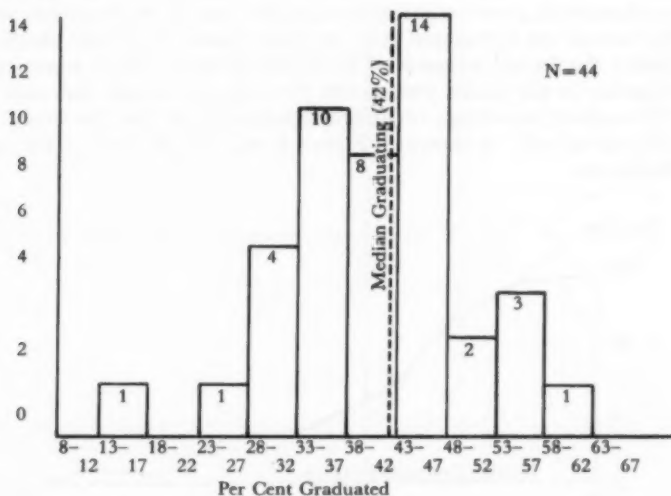


Figure 3. Per Cent of Those Entering the University Who Graduated, by High School

Was there any variation in the percentage of graduates when controlled by sex? Figure 4 summarizes the data for graduation with the percentages for men and women presented separately. Whereas the median percentages graduated without considering sex was 42 per cent, for women alone it was 34 per cent and for men 46 per cent. The wide variation in the staying power of students from the various high schools

could be accredited to financial and other reasons as well as to scholastic ones. Also, the greater staying power of boys could be accredited to American mores, such as earlier marriages for girls and greater stress on higher education for boys.

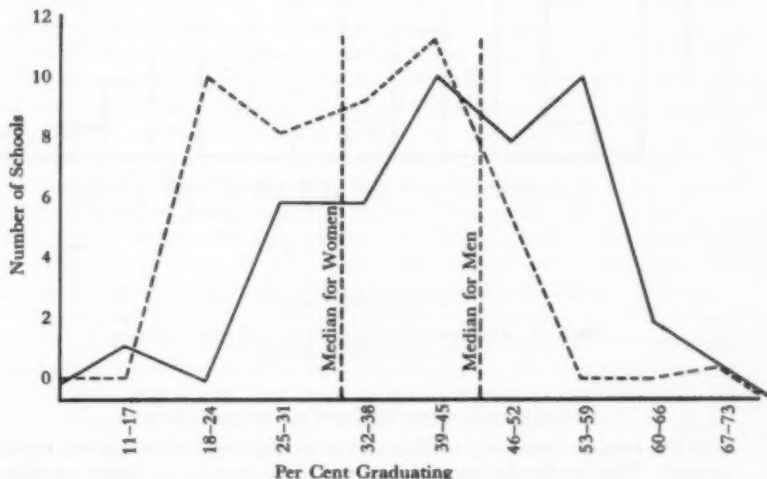


Figure 4. Per Cent of Men (46%) Graduating and Per Cent of Women (34%) Graduating.

Was there any variation in the grade-point averages of the students when considered by their high schools of origin? When the grades for the students included in the study were considered by their high schools of origin, it was found that the range was from 1.16 to 1.64. This was a range of one half a grade which is considerable. However, in testing the extreme differences from the median grade-point average of all cases (1.41), by use of chi-square, they were found to be significant at about the .60 level which was statistically not a significant difference. The composite grade-point averages for the students from the 44 high schools included in the study are presented in Figure 5. Since the variation by high schools did not prove to be a statistically significant difference, it was not considered as a factor in this discussion of staying power.

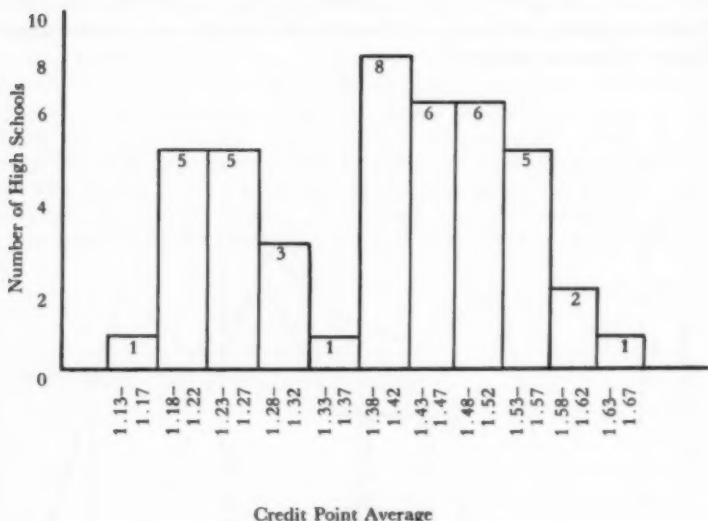


Figure 5. Composite Credit Point Averages for Students from Each High School.

CONCLUSIONS WITH RESPECT TO STAYING POWER

What factors discussed in this article might have an affect on staying power? The study did not probe into such factors as early marriage, financial problems, military service, and transfer to other institutions. The evidence did not indicate any lack of mental ability on the part of these students, or did it seem to indicate that the standards of the University are set too high since the group of students had a grade-point average of C. Finally, the dropout rate of 58 per cent established for this group of University students seemed high. The variation found among the median scores of the highh-school sub-samples on the *Orientation Tests* indicated that some high schools were doing a better job of preparing their students for the University than others. In fact, it appeared that some of the secondary schools of the state were not doing an adequate job of preparing their students for college. Likewise, the findings seemed to indicate that even the best seconardy schools in the state were failing to furnish adequate college preparation for all of their students seeking to enter the University. There especially seemed to be a lack of preparation in English.

The Secondary School and the Acculturation of Indian People

K. W. BERGAN

A THRILLING drama is unfolding on Montana Indian Reservations in the area of education. This exciting picture is significant when portrayed on the background of Indian problems as they were described in the Merriam survey of Indian people and their needs in 1928. This study was sponsored and financed by the Brookings Institute. It concluded that Indian people lack education as one of the basic needs for the solution of problems confronting Indian people on United States Government reservations. In fact, it recommended that the fundamental activity of the Bureau of Indian Affairs should be education. Because of the lack of strong education background, there is a congestion of population on reservations. It naturally follows that the economic level is depressed and the standard of living is low. The aftermath of these situations is a deplorable health condition, and an extremely low standard of living.

This problem of over-population, lack of employment, and low income will never be solved until the people are fully equipped to leave the reservation and compete for jobs in non-Indian areas where employment is available. This means that these people of Indian blood must have the skills of non-Indian people and must have experience with integrated living among non-Indian people so that they will feel confident in their abilities and be comfortable in such an environment.

It must be kept in mind that the education of Indian people involves a cultural change, a change in a way of life. Such changes involve a complete change in the philosophy of living. A cultural change would be a social change which comes slowly and is measured in generations instead of years.

The policy of the Division of Indian Education in the State Department of Public Instruction was summarized as follows this past year. "Children of Indian blood should be equipped with the tools of learning, experience, and training to provide those skills which will fit into 'The American Way of Life' so that they will be on a level of competition with the non-Indian in economic living, health standards, social and moral living." To accomplish this goal, it is recognized that much learning is not textbook learning, but group learning, social learning, that rubs on; the concomitant learning from contacts with non-Indian people in non-segregated schools. Such experience contributes much to the successful integration of Indian people in a non-Indian community. The

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area of education which seems to contribute most to this experience of integrated living is the secondary school.

The Flathead Reservation, which has the longest history of non-segregated high-school education in Montana, has gone the farthest in providing education which helps people of Indian blood to integrate. Over one half of the enrolled members of this reservation are now living in communities away from the reservation. They have integrated successfully into the normal life of the community where they live. This living in new communities has been accomplished without Federal subsidy and voluntarily on the part of the Indian people. Non-segregated high-school education has been available to the Indian people on the Flathead Reservation for almost 40 years.

The Blackfeet Reservation and the Fort Peck Reservation would come next on the list groups of Indian people with a long history of non-segregated high-school education. This program of education with experiences for integration has been in effect for about 30 years and now the third generation of these high-school graduates is beginning to attend school. Approximately 40 per cent of the enrolled members of these two reservations have integrated in communities away from the reservation and have a standard of living comparable with the community where they live. They are successful in their new communities.

The non-segregated school breaks down the inferiority complex among pupils of Indian blood. They are graduated from high school with an attitude of confidence and a desire to be successful in the economic and civic life of the community. Such an attitude is basic to the success of any individual. This attitude also builds a strong foundation for the social and economic life of our country.

There is a different situation among Indian people on the reservations where non-segregated high schools have not been established. There are no such high schools on the Fort Belknap, Northern Cheyenne, and Rocky Boy Reservations. Very few of the Indian people from these three reservations have integrated successfully in communities away from the reservation. Every possible effort is being made to provide this type of an educational experience for pupils of Indian blood on these reservations. A fifty-mile, paved road is being built on the Fort Belknap Reservation. The justification for this road construction had education at the top of the list. The highway will make it feasible to operate a school bus to Harlem so that high-school pupils in the Hays area may attend the Harlem High School, which is 40 miles away. An effort is being made to improve roads so that pupils in the Lodge Pole area may attend the Dodson High School. A new paved road from the Rocky Boy Reservation is being constructed so that a school bus may transport pupils from the Rocky Boy Reservation to the Havre High School, which is 25 miles away. Some of the Northern Cheyenne pupils attend the High School at Colstrip, which is twenty miles north of the reservation. The biggest problem in this high school is the lack of a broad curriculum to

meet the needs of the Indian pupils. There are no classes in home-making for the girls, and no class in shop work to teach skills to the boys.

There is a program initiated by the Federal government, under the administration of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, called the relocation program. This program relocates families in communities away from the reservation. This relocation is usually in an industrial community where there is high employment. The relocation program includes finding work for the relocatee, finding a home to live in, and helping the relocatee become acquainted with his church, shopping center, and community. The success of this program is measured by the number of families that stay in the new community six months or more. The relocation program has been highly successful on the Flathead, Blackfeet, Fort Peck, and Crow Reservations. The program has not been 50 per cent successful on the Fort Belknap, Northern Cheyenne, or Rock Boy Reservations, which indicates that the non-segregated high-school experience contributes to the success of the relocation program. On the Northern Cheyenne Reservation, the Federal relocation program has been over 80 per cent failure because the relocatees return to the reservation within six months. The very common reason given by the returnee from a relocation job is: "My wife did not like it." A further check has indicated that the wives with high-school home-making training adjust most satisfactorily in new communities away from the reservation. They can go to the shopping center and converse or visit on a level with the wives of other families in the community.

The progress made in health is most noticeable in those communities of Indian people where there is the broadest educational experience in non-segregated education. The place of education in the solution of problems confronting Indian people is placed at the top of all programs by students of the problem. The Bureau of Indian Affairs is beginning to recognize the importance of this approach in a more liberal attitude in finance towards the support of non-segregated education. This change in attitude during the last four years by the Bureau of Indian Affairs in Montana can be summarized in the phrase, "Money talks." The United States Public Health Service recognizes the place of education in the solution of health problems among Indian people by employing health educators on many reservations. They also encourage the construction of health rooms in all new schools being built on Indian reservations with Federal money, so that the Public Health Nurse will have ample facilities to work among the school children.

The path for the solution of problems confronting Indian people has been marked. Everyone should acquaint himself with the direction this path is taking. Problems like Hill 57, Rapid City Sioux Camp, and Devils Lake Chippewa Colony arise when relocation takes place without the people having proper educational experience. These communities complain about their Indian problem and do not realize that the solution lies on their door step through a strong educational program which will help these people to enjoy the civic and economic life of the community.

What Constitutes a Good Manual Arts Therapy Clinical Training Program

EDGAR E. BEST

AS WE direct our attention to what constitutes a good clinical training program, we should ask ourselves first, what we want a clinical training program to accomplish for us. I am sure that if I were to ask each of you that question individually, I would get but one answer. All of you would unanimously agree with me that what we want most of all is the best qualified therapist obtainable. Mark Twain once said that "Training is everything. A cauliflower," he said, "is nothing but a cabbage with a college education." Well, we want a cabbage with a college education, but we want more than that. We want therapists who have specialized training unobtainable in any college today, and we want them to be able to apply this training in a way that will improve the medical care of our patients.

A school superintendent once said that a school is no better than its weakest teacher. I have pondered that remark many times in the intervening years, and I have often realized just how true his statement was. Certainly it applies to us in manual arts therapy, for no treatment program can be better than its weakest therapist. Since we function as a team, we might think of ourselves as a chain. A chain cannot afford to have even one weak link, for, if it does, it will break; and so it is with us. Just one mistake by a poorly trained therapist can undo in a few seconds what it has taken other members of the team months to build.

We have been aware of this great need for training from the very beginning, and we have attempted to compensate by in-service training, seminars, workshops, and by whatever other means we could provide. Always we have labored diligently and persistently to raise the educational standards and to improve the professional quality of the treatment being provided to the patients in the one hundred VA stations offering manual arts therapy.

At the same time that we have been seeking new ways to improve the quality of our treatment, we have grown in numbers. That is a fairly accurate indicator that our efforts have not been in vain. In the past

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five years our manual arts therapy staff has jumped from 425 to 550, and I believe we will continue to grow. Clinical training, in my opinion, offers the best solution for assuring us of a continuing source of highly qualified personnel.

In 1953 we had *one* clinical training program—a pilot program at Whipple, Arizona. Today we have 20 programs and several others in the process of development. We in Central Office are proud of the work our hospital staffs have done and are doing in helping to train this source of future personnel, and in the initiative and foresight they have demonstrated in initiating affiliations with industrial arts or industrial colleges.

Some of you may ask if it is possible for us to over-expand in establishing clinical affiliations. I would say quite the opposite. Not only will we continue to need well-qualified therapists in the Veterans Administration, but many Federal, state, and privately owned rehabilitation centers are offering similar type programs. They are looking to us, the pioneers in this new paramedical field for well-trained personnel. Some of our public school systems are instituting special programs to meet the needs of their handicapped youth, and a number of foreign countries have indicated their intention to introduce programs similar to ours. Hence, the well-qualified therapist should be able to pick almost any job he chooses for many years to come. Even if he decides to remain in the teaching profession, his time will not have been wasted for he will have obtained specialized training such as he could not receive anywhere else in the United States for any price whatsoever. By taking clinical training as a part of, or in lieu of, his practice teaching, the industrial arts graduate will be equipped with greater potentials for employment, and his hospital experience will have provided him with a deeper insight into the individual needs of each patient. This emphasis on the "human approach" will make him a better therapist, or, if he prefers, a better teacher. However, if, after completing his clinical training, the trainee does decide to come with us, he is eligible to enter the program at a GS-6 grade rather than the GS-5 he would get without clinical training *or* some comparable specialized experience.

But let us get back to what constitutes a good clinical training program. We have said that we must have a program that will produce well-qualified therapists. Thus, we know that we must have an effective program. If in wood shop we are going to make a chair, a table, or any especially fine piece of furniture, we would select our raw materials with great care. We might decide to use black walnut, cherry, or mahogany, but we would know before beginning just exactly what material to use to produce the desired results. The same is true in selecting trainees for manual arts therapy. While clinical training provides the student with an opportunity to determine if he has the personal aptitudes for working with sick or handicapped patients, it seems that

some preliminary checking would be advisable. I mention this because of the major role personality plays in the success of the therapist. Certainly a student selected for training should have a genuine liking for his fellowman. His personality should be such that he is able to foster within a patient a desire to get well. He should be sympathetic, friendly, sincere, courteous, patient, resourceful, and at all times respect the confidence placed in him. Last, he should be able to use tact and diplomacy in the handling of patients. Tact has been defined as "the ability to use a foam-rubber mallet to drive in your point." Abraham Lincoln is said to have defined it as letting the other fellow have your way. Benjamin Franklin, also, was a master at using tact. The correct way to use tact in gaining a point, he claimed, was to scratch your head and appear in doubt then, to let your opponent convince you that you were right. Not many of us can be like either of these great men, but we do need people who can get along well with others.

Now you may ask what kind of magic pill will change an industrial arts student into a well-qualified manual arts therapist. Naturally, we have no such pill, for the change does not take place quickly. It takes time for the trainee to have an opportunity to encounter the clinical problems involved in adapting the knowledge and skill he has learned in industrial arts into effective treatment techniques. Just how long this will take we are not sure, but we do feel that the more time the trainee can spend at the hospital, the better trained he will become. Just being in the right environment will afford him many valuable experiences. In our Interim Issue 10-431, dated May 17, 1957, we stated that the minimum acceptable clock hours should be 240. All our existing programs have more than this minimum. Most of them range between 320 to 480 and some have as many as 600.

We are primarily interested today, however, in the kind of program the hospital will offer to allow the trainee to encounter clinical problems and obtain practical experience in the application of these techniques. A good clinical training program should have three things: it must be a diversified program; it must be presented by competent personnel; and it must be carefully planned in advance in order to schedule the trainees' time wisely.

A comprehensive program should be broken down into two major categories; namely, actual clinical experience in manual arts therapy procedures and techniques and a thorough orientation of hospital routine. In the first of these, the students observe and/or participate in the activities by working directly with the patients in the clinics, under the supervision of a physician and a therapist. As they become more familiar with the treatment techniques, they assist the therapist in the ward activities and accompany the staff on ward rounds. Usually about 50 per cent of the trainees' time is spent in clinical practice, and another 5 to 10 per cent in observation and ward rounds.

The second phase of training, the orientation, may be accomplished in a number of ways. Such activities as seminars; discussion groups; lectures; movies; demonstrations; and attendance at staff conferences, medical rehabilitation board meetings, or many other hospital activities are appropriate for their training. In this way the trainee gains an extensive orientation in the various professional, technical, and administrative phases of hospital and domiciliary activities, and a keen insight into the proper functioning of the entire Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Service.

During the clinical training period, the trainee should receive, through lectures or other means of orientation, a background in the pathology of disease and personality adjustment. He should be provided an opportunity to obtain a working knowledge of disease and the various disease entities with which he will be called upon to deal. His orientation should include a broad psychology of illness and disablement. In other words, he should be so well trained that he will be able to organize all his skills within a pattern of an over-all medical framework. Such a program should include lectures, orientation and tours of the various PM&R specialties, observation of the clinics and wards including the NP wards, in-service training, field trips, clinical conferences, clinical practice, and student conferences.

The first week should be devoted to orientation and observation. In a GM&S hospital, the remaining time can be divided between GM&S, NP, and TB patients.

Personnel from the entire hospital will be needed to assist the manual arts therapy staff in providing this type of diversified program. Those who should be called on to contribute to the orientation of the trainees are the chief of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation Service, and his coordinator; the chiefs of Occupational Therapy, Physical Therapy, Corrective Therapy, and Educational Therapy, as well as the chiefs of other existing Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation specialties; chief of Neuropsychiatric, chief of Psychology, chief of Social Service, chief of Special Service, chief of Nursing Service, chief of Vocational Counseling, State Rehabilitation representative, chief of Chaplain Service, chief of Library Service, and chief of Volunteer Service. By giving a concept of the duties and responsibilities of each of these personnel, the trainee will gain a broad background into the functioning of a VA hospital.

To have a good clinical training program, we must first start with carefully selected industrial arts students; we must set up a training program with enough clock hours to allow the student sufficient time to gain an understanding of clinical problems and effective methods of solving them as well as practical experience; we must be certain that the program is administered by competent personnel; and that it is diversified enough to allow the trainee a complete orientation in all phases of hospital operation and procedure.

In conclusion, the policy and procedure regarding affiliating programs for manual arts therapy clinical training is outlined in the Interim Issue 10-431 previously referred to and dated May 17, 1957. You should contact the Industrial Arts College in your vicinity to let them know what you are doing in manual arts therapy and to discuss with them the advantages of initiating such a program. In doing this, you will be embarking on a most satisfying experience, for, as we look toward the future, we must take the view that we are serving mankind when we are training skilled therapists. Until we can make our world accident proof we will continue to need rehabilitation.

As we continue to look toward the future, we are hoping that we will be receiving more trainees with a thorough background in electronics in order to compensate for the great demand for personnel in this space age we are entering. This rapid technical change taking place in the world today emphasizes again the need for better trained therapists. Despite the recent employment slump we have just experienced, the demand for skilled blue-collar workers has increased according to the U.S. Secretary of Labor. If in our manual arts therapy clinics we can salvage from among our handicapped those who can be trained to work with both their brains and their hands, we will be rendering our country a great service in this great technological race with Russia. According to the U.S. Secretary of Labor, tool and die makers, expert machinists, electronic technicians, draftsmen, and designers are among the skilled blue-collar workers industry will be requiring in increasing numbers in the next few years. If we can provide our hospitalized patients with the guidance and technical skill to avail themselves of these employment opportunities, we will have achieved two goals. We will have helped the patient recover faster by providing him a realistic stimulus to get well, and we will have salvaged, from the human stockpile, manpower critically needed to serve mankind in this highly skilled age of "automation." We cannot provide such treatment without well-qualified therapists, and we cannot get them without clinical training.



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The Book Column

Professional Books

ALFRED P. SLOAN FOUNDATION. *Report for 1957-58*. New York 20: The Foundation, 630 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 179 pp. This biennial Report for the years 1957-58 describes in some detail the conduct and achievements of those projects to which the Foundation has committed substantial funds or which may be of special interest to the reader. These descriptions are prefaced by a brief account of the Foundation's internal operations and comment upon the role of the Foundation in its relation to higher education.

The American Secondary School: College Admissions. New York 27: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street. 1959. 74 pp. \$2. The book traces the evolution of the high school from the 1600's and concentrates on the major aspects of its controversial role in American education today. Successive articles discuss the historical and current sources contributing toward the diversity in the secondary school; the fiscal, legal, and social controls exerted on the schools from tangible and intangible sources; the school's function as a place of learning and growth; and the school's relationship to the larger American cultural scene.

Charles R. Keller traces the rise of the high school from its "stepchild" beginnings to its emergence as an urgent concern of the entire American public. James S. Coleman discusses varying approaches adolescents make to what is taught and learned in the high school today. William H. Cornog examines the educational obligations of the school and teacher in relation to the philosophy of a free, democratic society. Stanton Leggett suggests that it is the attitude of school leadership toward controls that determines success or failure in the attainment of professional goals. Harold Howe, II, principal of Newton High School, cites evidences of increasing cooperation between schools and colleges in areas of common concern. David B. Austin comments on the formal academic as well as the many unplanned experiences in the high schools. S. A. Kendrick discusses the maturation of young people in the high-school environment. Max Lerner defines the place of education in the frame of reference of other American cultural goals in an "intellectual renaissance."

ATKINS, A. J., and GWYNN, J. M. *Teaching Alcohol Education in the Schools*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 198 pp. \$3.20. This book is primarily for teachers and school personnel who are interested in providing instruction in the schools about alcohol. The authors have prepared this source book on alcohol education for teachers, presenting (1) the need for a program of alcohol education in the schools; (2) what materials are based on research, what are inferential, and what are erroneous propaganda; (3) methods of approach for teaching the subject, and (4) resources and materials for teaching alcohol education.

To carry out these purposes, the first chapter presents briefly the historical development of the alcohol problem in our society and shows why a program of education concerning it is needed in the public schools. The next four chapters present what investigators have discovered about the effects of alcohol on

human beings and society—data from the related fields of mental hygiene, psychiatry and medicine, sociology, and physiology and psychology. The disease of alcoholism and its effects are all described in detail. Chapter Six analyzes the different approaches to the teaching of alcohol education for both the elementary and the secondary schools.

BAKER, STEPHEN. *Advertising Layout and Art Direction*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1959. 334 pp. (8½" x 11"). \$13.50. In quick, precise, illustrated stages, this remarkably different book covers the two major areas of advertising art—layout and art direction. It deals with both the creative and directional aspects of developing a graphic advertising idea and seeing it through to production. At all times this book emphasizes the importance of getting the right story across to the consumer without sacrificing good design. Brisk descriptions explain each step. Hundreds of specially selected illustrations demonstrate each point.

In giving techniques for making layouts and television storyboards, the book shows, with sample after sample, what one gets with various art tools, how to use them, what makes a composition "good," how to choose type for appearance and readability, how to get the ad noticed—and read, how to apply one's knowledge of production creatively, and much more.

The art director's job is explained along with techniques for working with the copy staff, the account executives, and the clients. It tells how to keep out of the ivory tower and still keep the creative spirit alive . . . how to get your money's worth when you buy art or photography and still keep the artist's respect . . . how to run the art department to get the work out and still keep the staff enthusiastic, and so on.

BEAUCHAMP, G. A. *Basic Dimensions of Elementary Method*. Boston 11, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, 150 Tremont Street. 1959. 347 pp. \$5.50. This excitingly different new book is designed to alleviate the duplication of methods work so prevalent in today's elementary-school teacher education. Instead of distributing the problems, principles, and issues of method among a number of separate-subject methods courses, the author sets forth the dimensions that are basic to teaching in the elementary school regardless of the subject taught.

After an examination of method itself—its meaning, scope, and responsibilities, and the setting in which it must operate—the book divides method into four basic areas. The first is the study of children—why we study them, how we study them, and the implications of this study for teaching. The second basic dimension of method deals with the teacher's organization of his materials. This includes a study of his approach to teaching (by a comparison of the separate-subjects approach and the experience approach), his choice of instructional materials, and an examination of the over-all planning involved in teaching.

The actual teaching-learning situation constitutes the author's third basic dimension of elementary method. Here, the author integrates the fundamentals of teaching materials and the essentials of child study with the specific dynamics of the classroom situation—classroom groups, activities, routines, and discipline. The final basic dimension is that of evaluation, which is analyzed as it applies to several levels within the education activity—the work of the teacher, the growth of the individual pupil, the progress of the group, and the success of the activities themselves.

COLE, LUELLA. *Psychology of Adolescence*, fifth edition. New York 16: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 232 Madison Avenue. 1959. 749 pp. \$7. As in previous editions, the author has tried in this one to present a comprehensive, balanced picture of adolescent growth along all lines—physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and moral. Naturally, the published reports of research in these various phases of adolescent development are not equal in number, scope, or value, but within the limits imposed by the available studies, the author has given equal emphasis to developments in each field.

As in the earlier editions, the author has used many case histories, anecdotes, personal reminiscences, figures, pictures, and other illustrative materials, not only to make the text of greater interest to the student but also to clothe the facts with living flesh and blood, so that the reader may see how the various phases discussed in the abstract appear in human development.

In this edition she has added one chapter, has subdivided all the long chapters in previous editions, and has made a new arrangement of the units. Part One includes a single short chapter on the goals of adolescence. Parts Two through Five present materials on physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and moral growth, respectively. Part Six contains a series of chapters that relate specifically to the application of facts and theories to the business of teaching. Previously, these chapters were scattered throughout the text. The last section, Seven, has only one chapter, which deals with the end of adolescence and the beginning of adulthood. There is, thus, first a presentation of all phases of adolescent development, followed by an application of them to the schoolroom.

The booklist of fiction and biography has been revised and a list of films has been added to it (Appendix A). The Problems and Projects (Appendix B) has also been revised.

FRICK, MARGARET, editor. *Sears List of Subject Headings*. New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue. 1959. 610 pp. \$5. Outer space, artificial satellites, automation, little league baseball, and brain-washing are some of the 300 new subjects added to this eighth edition. First published in 1923 for small libraries, the book has gone through seven editions with constant changes to improve it and enlarge its scope to include medium as well as small libraries. It has grown from its original 183 pages to 610 in the present edition. The author has edited the sixth, seventh, and the present eighth edition for which she has written an entirely new preface.

Like its predecessors, the eighth edition follows the Library of Congress form of headings with occasional modifications to meet the needs of smaller collections. A few new features have been added including a section on "Headings To Be Added by the Cataloger" and an entire rewriting of the "Suggestions for the Beginner in Subject Heading Work" based on the present editor's experience in teaching subject cataloging with the aid of this List.

Basically, this eighth edition features many more explanatory notes to define meaning and scope of headings plus more modern terminology; wide $3\frac{1}{2}$ " margins for the alphabetical addition of headings as the need arises in the individual library—and bold face type for all subject headings; and "see," and "see also," and "refer from" references are so arranged that they may be used or not, according to the librarian's preference and the needs of the individual library.

GARRISON, K. C., and D. G. FORCE, JR. *The Psychology of Exceptional Children*, third edition. New York 10: The Ronald Press Company, 15 E. 26th Street. 1959. 592 pp. \$6. The purpose of this book is to bring

together in brief and systematic form much of the pertinent knowledge of exceptional children which bears upon their education. Because the book is designed primarily as a textbook for students enrolled in teacher-education institutions and as a source of reference for teachers in service, emphasis is placed on the contribution which the regular classroom teacher can make to the education and welfare of the exceptional child.

This third edition constitutes a rather sweeping revision of the earlier revised edition. There have been significant developments in the field of special education. Greatly expanded services, increased public awareness, and improvements in methods have come in rapid fashion. Students of education and psychology have busied themselves with problems involving many types of exceptional children. Additional research has been completed, new theories and concepts introduced, and earlier viewpoints modified.

In addition to many other changes and additions throughout the book, there are new chapters on epilepsy, cerebral palsy, and cardiac conditions. The sections on emotionally and socially maladjusted children have been brought up to date. The Appendix has been revised to include a glossary of terms and an annotated list of motion pictures.

HARNETT, A. L., and J. H. SHAW. *Effective School Health Education*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 35 W. 32nd Street. 1959. 435 pp. \$4.75. This book describes the school health program, and is written for teachers and prospective teachers, nurses, school administrators, and any others who are vitally interested in the health needs of children and opportunities for health improvement. Two points of emphasis are included: (1) the opportunities and responsibilities of the classroom teacher, and (2) suggestions for cooperative action in effective education for health.

The book is organized under three major heads: Health Education Today (chapters 1-3); The School Health Program (chapters 4-9); and Health Teaching in the Schools (chapters 10-14). The titles of these 14 chapters are: The Nature and Meaning of Health Education; Health and Education; Health Needs of Children; Education for Health Through School Organization; Health Education Through School Health Services; Health Education Through Health Guidance and Adjustment; The School Safety Education Program; Health Aspects of Physical Education and Recreation; Healthful Living at School; Health Teaching in Elementary Schools; Health Teaching in Secondary Schools; Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques; Sources and Resources for Health Education; and Evaluation in Health Education. Also included is a preface, an appendix, and an index.

JOHNSON, P. O., and R. W. B. JACKSON. *Modern Statistical Methods: Descriptive and Inductive*. Skokie, Illinois: Rand McNally and Company, 8255 Central Park Avenue. 1959. 524 pp. This book is designed to lead students in education, psychology, and the other social sciences from the beginnings of statistical methodology to an advanced level of instruction. It is addressed particularly to graduate students and to senior undergraduates, some of whom may have had an introductory course in statistical methods. However, the text is self-contained: in each case a number of the simpler descriptive statistical methods are used either as an introduction to more complex descriptive methods or as tools for testing statistical hypotheses and for estimation. But the authors have included only those they believe to be useful and essential, and they have not given all the possible variations of formulae for techniques such as, for instance, correlation analysis. At best, these variants of

the standard procedures are often approximations only, based on assumptions of doubtful validity, and made necessary by peculiar experimental conditions that should have been avoided through proper selection of an experimental design.

The authors' guiding purpose has been to present each concept and technique as concisely and rigorously as possible, avoiding lengthy verbal descriptions while retaining completeness of presentation of the basic concepts, assumptions, and skills. But they have not made exclusive use of the mathematical form of expression; their stress throughout has been on an arithmetical approach. The little mathematics used has been largely algebra, requiring no more on the part of the student than a mastery of secondary school mathematics. They have also used numerous real examples, as explanatory material in the text and as exercises, to illustrate the concepts and the arithmetical processes involved in the calculation of the required statistics.

KNOWLES, MALCOLM and HULDA. *Introduction to Group Dynamics*. New York 7: Association Press, 291 Broadway. 1959. 95 pp. \$2.50. For those baffled by the new technical vocabulary and the claims and counterclaims of research reports, this is an expert primer on group dynamics: what it is, its origins as a science, its main ideas, its specialized language, its practical applications. The book provides an easily understood introduction to understanding the new and complicated science of group dynamics, a field in which vast numbers of church and civic organization leaders, as well as industrial, commercial, and military personnel specialists are now being trained. This is a theory-and-practice introduction for anyone entering group leadership in any organization, and preparing to study it seriously for more effective results.

LYONS, G. M., and J. W. MASLAND. *Education and Military Leadership*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press. 1959. 301 pp. \$5. The Reserve Officers Training Corps grew out of the American tradition of the civilian-soldier. However, the specialized techniques of modern warfare and the complexities of our international commitments now require a body of highly trained professional career officers. The re-evaluation of the ROTC has thus become an urgent matter.

The authors, who are well known for their earlier studies of the military, in this book provide a starting point for a revision of our methods of providing the military leadership that our nation needs. They view this vital problem in the context of the American educational system and conclude that civilian colleges and universities must begin to educate for the military as they do for other professions.

McCLOSKEY, GORDON. *Education and Public Understanding*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street. 1959. 590 pp. \$6. This book will be useful to school administrators, teachers, board members, and enlightened citizens who must cope with the timeless problem of obtaining moral and financial support for schools. It summarizes research on principles and techniques of effective communication with the public. It defines and describes these principles in full, and presents a case study for illustration. The ways of using all modern communication media—person-to-person, group processes, newspapers, television, radio, and school publications—all of these are explored with a view to increasing knowledge of their possibilities among personnel who will benefit most highly from their usage. Emphasis is placed on the importance of well-planned long- and short-range public relations programs which utilize all personnel and public resources. It also defines specific

communication opportunities and responsibilities of school personnel. Following each chapter are reading suggestions and topics for discussion.

MCDANIEL, H. B.; J. E. LALLAS; J. E. SAUM; and J. L. GILMORE. *Reading in Guidance*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1959. 431 pp. This book is a direct result of the urgent need for a definitive compilation of important periodical writing in the area of guidance. Providing significant and invaluable source materials, it includes a selection of seventy-three timely readings, skillfully integrated with vivid introductory and interstitial commentary by four editors.

Taken from the literature of the past decade, the readings offer the counselor-in-training, the counselor-trainer, and the counselor-in-service an unparalleled opportunity to approach the study of guidance through the writings and ideas of the leaders in the field. Used successfully by the editors in their own classes, these selections consider the modern guidance program in terms of its relevant antecedents, present practices, and current unsolved problems.

MCGUIRE, VINCENT; R. B. MYERS; and C. L. DURRANCE. *Your Student Teaching in the Secondary School*. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, 150 Tremont Street. 1959. 357 pp. \$5.95. Written especially for young men and women who intend to pursue careers in secondary education, this new book is geared to the problems they will face as student teachers. The organization of the book covers each transitional step required of them—from just before student teaching through securing the first full-time position.

The major emphasis of the book is on the role of the student teacher in the classroom. Five chapters, which follow the sequence of classroom teaching, give detailed guidance on planning, selecting, and using materials and resources, developing leadership abilities, providing for effective learning experiences, and evaluating and reporting pupil progress.

The book draws on the activities of over a thousand student teachers with whom the authors have worked for over ten years. Illustrations and anecdotes from their experiences highlight such common problems as overcoming pre-classroom anxieties; getting acquainted with a faculty, student body, and community in a short time; establishing good human relations; and understanding what college coordinators expect of the student teacher. From the experiences of these student teachers, the authors have created check lists that other student teachers can use to evaluate their own intellectual and emotional maturity and their development in relation to the school, community, pupils, and staff. These check lists, plus specific suggestions on securing the first position, graduate study, professional organizations, etc., are provided in the final section of the book. This section, "Growing Into the Profession," points up the immediate post-student-teaching problems and is designed to help the young teacher succeed in the new job.

MORTENSEN, D. G., and A. M. SCHMULLER. *Guidance in Today's Schools*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 440 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 444 pp. \$5.75. This book is based upon the conviction that a firm background in the theoretical structure of guidance permits the use of methodology with cognizance and integrity of purpose. Although primary emphasis is on the meaning of guidance in today's schools, a balanced coverage of theory and practice is maintained. Applicable at both elementary and secondary levels, this book introduces an organized yet eclectic view of multidisciplinary areas covering the basic concepts of education, psychology, sociology-social work, American political theory, and economics.

Two key chapters discuss understanding the individual, the first function of guidance workers. Proper recognition of the guidance roles of, and team relationship among teachers, guidance specialists, and administrators, is given. The authors also discuss at length the optimum development of each pupil as the goal of education. And in the final analysis, the authors point out that guidance programs as well as school curriculums have to be flexible and adaptable in order to meet the highest potentialities of each individual pupil.

Music Education Materials—A Selected Bibliography. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 158 pp. \$3. This is a comprehensive bibliographical tool to members of the profession of music education as well as to others interested in the problems relating to instruction in music. The materials listed and briefly described in the bibliography have been selected as representative of the best of those currently available to teachers in our American public and private schools. Since the entries to be included in any one section were not limited in number, they will be found quite complete in some sections, while in others they are more critically restrictive. Listings of musical materials for vocal music classes in junior and senior high schools were limited entirely to published books, folios, and graded series.

ROUCEK, J. S. *The Challenge of Science Education.* New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 East 40th Street. 1959. 503 pp. \$10. When Sputnik was announced to a startled world in October 1957, the reaction of America was immediate and vigorous. But nowhere was it more unsettling than in certain radical proposals for revolutionizing the American educational system by copying that of the USSR. Scientists and educators have continued to point out that the American people are still not fully awakened to the challenge of science education in our schools.

This book contains the views of more than 30 collaborators, including such names as Dr. James R. Killian, consultant to President Eisenhower; and Dr. Werner Heisenberg, Nobel Prize winner.

SNYDER, K. D. *School Music Administration and Supervision.* Boston 11: Allyn and Bacon, 150 Tremont Street. 1959. 379 pp. \$6. An indispensable guide for all concerned with the teaching of music in the elementary and secondary schools, this new book is a modern text devoted exclusively to the administrative and supervisory problems confronting the music educator. His responsibilities are placed against a background of the total school organization. The problems of personal relationships, curriculum and curriculum planning, methods of improving instruction, and public relations are discussed in the first five chapters of the book. His operational duties are examined in the succeeding chapters, which provide a detailed, practical discussion of such vital aspects of his job as scheduling, purchasing, receiving, accounting, storage and filing, service and repair, and replacing equipment.

The leadership required of the successful music educator and the methods he uses in dealing with budget and with space and housing problems also are examined in detail. Examples of music department budgets, plus technical considerations concerning the purchase of pianos, are supplied in the appendices. These also contain other reference material, a "Bookshelf for the Music Educator," information on the copyright law with regard to music, and numerous illustrations of facilities for music in the school.

WILES, KIMBALL. *Teaching for Better Schools*, Second Edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1959. 351 pp. \$5.95. This second edition moves away from the theory that a teacher should be excellent in all phases of teaching, and recommends instead, ways in which the teacher can develop his own unique abilities in some phases, and attain minimum competency in all areas. Realizing the need for a comprehensive and realistic guide for today's teacher, the author has conducted extensive research to determine the more complex needs of both the teacher and student of our present-day educational system. From this research he has developed this second edition. Every chapter has been revised in the new edition to insure practicality as well as adaptability to the problems the teacher meets in the modern school system.

Quality teaching is described throughout the text, and sharp comparisons are drawn between teaching situations. The reader is shown—through a wealth of examples and case material—the differences between unsatisfactory, satisfactory, and quality teaching. The author lists and describes seven areas of quality teaching. They are: Thorough Self-Evaluation Check Lists, Human Relations, Promotion of Group Development, Providing for Individual Differences, The Stimulation of Intellectual Growth, Developing Self-Direction, and Exerting Leadership in Faculty and Community.

WITTENBERG, R. M. *Adolscence and Discipline*. New York 7: Association Press, 291 Broadway. 1959. 318 pp. \$4.95. As its subtitle, *A Mental Hygiene Primer*, indicates, the author's latest book is a guide in everyday language to modern psychological and educational concepts of discipline as a fundamental ingredient of the maturation process which reaches its most intense stages during adolescence. Its goal is to help those who would help normal teen boys and girls grow up normally and happily by achieving an inner discipline that is the ultimate mark of adulthood.

WOFFORD, AZILE. *The School Library at Work*. New York 52: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue. 1959. 256 pp. \$3.50. This book aims at being practical rather than scholarly or technical. Stressing the acquisition, organization, use, and maintenance of materials in the school library, the book is a useful step-by-step guide for the beginning librarian and at the same time offers stimulating suggestions for those who wish to look beyond the daily round.

School librarians will find this book comprehensive, authoritative, and practical. Unlike most other librarians, the school librarian is absolutely on his own. The usual pattern is one trained librarian for a school. Consequently, there is not much opportunity for the school librarian to learn essential routines on the job, under another librarian's guidance. It is for these librarians that this book will prove to be most helpful. It should also be helpful in training courses for school librarians, especially when one course must include both administration of the library and technical processes.

The book's seven chapters deal respectively with the routines of acquisition, processing, circulation, the use of reading materials in the library, keeping materials in good condition, finances, and reports. An appendix lists selected aids and manuals for teaching library use, and closes with a directory of publishers and suppliers and a glossary of library terms. Accompanying the descriptions of procedures are more than 40 illustrations of model forms, cards, etc.

Your AASA in 1958-59. Washington 6, D. C.: The American Association of School Administrators, 1201 16th Street, N. W. 1959. 256 pp. Paper back, \$1. This is the official report of the association for 1958. It includes a record of the annual meeting and work conference on "Education and the Creative Arts" held in Atlantic City, February 14-18, 1959.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ANDERSON, POUL. *Perish by the Sword.* New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 180 pp. This story introduces a unique new private investigator, Trygve Yamamura, a Norwegian-Japanese with a handy knowledge of judo and the Samurai sword. These arts and skills make him probably the sole detective who could keep his head while stalking a murderer whose weapon is a Muramasa blade of keen and terrible beauty. The setting is the Bay Area, mainly Berkeley and San Francisco. Others involved in the prize-winning story, besides Yamamura, are a free-lance linguist and writer, his attractive married secretary, the partners and the backer of a metallurgic laboratory on the brink of a tremendous discovery, a Zen beatster, and even a Berkeley police inspector.

ASHBY, R. H. *Clown of Hemlock.* Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company. 1959. 350 pp. \$4.95. Release from the army brought David Lanyi back to the dusty and garish Mexican section of the little Southern California town where he had grown up. Here are the memories of his dead Gypsy mother; the old wonderings about his father, a "white" man he has never seen. David knows that he must find for himself a life beyond work in his defeated Mexican stepfather's poor store, that somehow he must fight off his familiar private devil—the Black Dog of despair who ever reminds him that perhaps he is simply . . . no one at all.

ASHBY, WALLACE; ROBERT DODGE; and C. K. SHEDD. *Modern Farm Buildings.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1959. 400 pp. \$5.50. In simple terms, three authorities on farm housing give practical, helpful information about farm buildings. It is up-to-date information that conforms to the latest recommendations of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

BANNING, KENDALL. *West Point Today.* New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 256 pp. \$3.95. This is a valuable book for anyone interested in West Point who wants to know about the life there and the history of the academy. For the person who has a relative there or will in the near future, this book will be a helpful guide. It is informal in style, but it contains an amazing amount of practical information and historical background. There are endpaper maps showing the buildings, roads, walks, and general layout of West Point, and there are also a frontispiece and an index.

BARZUN, JACQUES. *The House of Intellect.* New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd Street. 1959. 286 pp. \$5. The author presents his dissatisfaction with our schools, mass media, the government's attitudes toward art and education and the institutions committed to advancing intellectual activity and attainment.

BELL, KENSIL. *Danger on the Jersey Shore.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 245 pp. \$3. By encamping

at Valley Forge, General Washington's Army so successfully blockaded the British in Philadelphia that General Howe was compelled to seek food and forage across the Delaware River in New Jersey. To thwart him, the Second Regiment of the Jersey Brigade was ordered to its home state on March 19, 1778. From then until the British was forced to evacuate Philadelphia in June and made the disastrous march across New Jersey which culminated in their defeat at the Battle of Monmouth, a handful of Jerseymen under Colonel Israel Shreve performed a valiant and dangerous duty.

BENTEL, P. B. *Freshman At Large*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 W. 40th Street. 1959. 186 pp. \$2.95. Was Beth less mature because she did not know her own mind? Apparently, for everybody else seemed to be quite sure; they wanted her to be a popular girl. For instance, Hal wanted her to go to the nearby college so they could date, but she wasn't convinced. Maybe Clayton College was the answer for her. But questions were multiplied by the girls in her college hall—the one who had taken the file on the job Beth wanted, the one whose parents were not interested. Going to college provided no answers, only the means and freedom and time to find them for herself. Beth learned and Beth changed, and girls reading the book will see why.

BERRILL, JACQUELYN. *Wonders of the Arctic*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 95 pp. \$2.95. This companion book to *Wonders of the Antarctic*, written and illustrated by the same author, deals with the lands, the seas, and the living creatures of the Arctic region. It shows how seals, polar bears, caribou, and musk ox, among others, manage to live and raise their families throughout the cold winters and short summers. The Arctic spring with its melting snows, the sudden arrival of sea birds and land birds by the millions, the suicidal migration of the lemming, the crowding of walruses on packs of floating ice—and the hardy Eskimos who live happily amidst it all—are brought before the reader. And before the viewer, too, for the author's many drawings are both accurate and alive.

BERRY, ERICK. *Men, Moss, and Reindeer*. New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 96 pp. \$2.50. For eight thousand years the Lapps have tended their reindeer herds in a cold, bleak land stretching far beyond the Arctic Circle. In spite of telephones and airplanes, they have existed almost completely independent of other peoples. They are a hardy people—the temperature inside their winter houses is usually below freezing—and all their strength is needed just to stay alive.

BIBESCO, PRINCESS MARTHE. *Sir Winston Churchill: Master of Courage*. New York 36: The John Day Company, 62 W. 45th Street. 1959. 181 pp. \$3.50. This appraisal of the character and qualities of Winston Churchill is welcome for two reasons. It is probably the first foreign view of him to be published in English; and it comes from an author whose work has won her international acclaim and a French Academy award.

BLASSINGAME, WYATT. *They Rode the Frontier*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 182 pp. \$2.95. The author tells of the frontier preachers who helped bring civilization to the American frontier. Courageous, dedicated, these men braved the dangers of untracked wilderness, warring Indians, hunger, cold, robbers and outlaws, with no thought but for their mission. Henry Muhlenberg, Rabbi Isaac Mayer, Henry Whipple, Pere Marquette, Samuel Mills, John Stewart, William Taylor, Junipero Serra—all were alike in their love of adventure and desire to serve

mankind. Wherever they went, they brought order and justice where none had been before.

BLUM, DANIEL. *Screen World*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company, 56th and Chestnut Street. 1959. 240 pp. \$5.50. This is the tenth volume of an annual which covers all the motion pictures released during each calendar year. In it the editor does for the screen what his highly successful *Theatre World* does each year for the stage. Here you will find more than 500 photographs, scenes shot from American and foreign films, complete cast lists, articles, obituaries, and a thoroughly comprehensive index.

BUCKLEY, PETER. *The Spanish Plateau*. New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 96 pp. \$2.50. This hard dry plateau covers two-thirds of the area of Spain. It is bounded by mountains and more mountains cross it. The climate is extreme. Summer temperatures can vary as much as 75° in twenty-four hours. This is a land that destroys life. Yet people live on the Spanish plateau and somehow manage to survive. This book tells the story of their long struggle for existence against enormous odds and of modern attempts to bring water to the land. Now for the first time there is hope for the people of the plateau.

CAESAR. *De Bello Gallico*, Books III and VII. New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1959. Book III, 107 pp.; Book VII, 224 pp. \$1.25 each. Each book (4½" x 6½") should be a helpful aid to all students of Caesar's Gallic campaigns.

CAIDIN, MARTIN. *Spaceport U. S. A.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 380 pp. \$4.95. This is the story of the Air Force Missile Test Center: its operations, its history, its people, with their struggles and achievements. Its heart is Cape Canaveral, Florida, a fascinating, unreal, at times overwhelming world of fire and thunder. Only a decade ago a near wilderness of sand and scrub, the 15,000-acre Cape is today the spectacular launching site of the AFMTC, a vast laboratory for the Space Age. Cape Canaveral is at once the most vital and the most exciting single area in the United States. The AFMTC as a whole also comprises—in addition to other Florida bases—the great oceanic missile range extending more than 5,000 miles into the South Atlantic. Crucible of mighty rocket weapons—Atlas, Titan, Thor, Jupiter, and many others—of satellite vehicles and lunar probes, the Center is the most important facility of its kind for America and the whole free world.

Here are eyewitness accounts of the tense firings of research rockets and ballistic missiles. Here are the amazing details of the fantastically sensitive instruments with which the "birds" are tracked in flight. The book presents a comprehensive history of AFMTC and gives an intimate picture of life and work at Canaveral and the downrange bases.

CALLAHAN, DOROTHY, and A. S. PAYNE. *Young America's Cook Book*, revised edition. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 320 pp. \$3.95. This cook book, originally planned by the staff of the Herald Tribune's famous Home Institute, has now been revised by two experts in the field of food and nutrition. It is a book for the beginning cook who wants to know the fundamentals of cookery, and how to be skilled and creative in the kitchen.

This book is so arranged that each recipe can be considered separately or as part of a plan, such as a family dinner, an outdoor meal, a buffet brunch, or a party. The several hundred recipes and the menus have all been carefully

planned and tested. Attention is given to meal planning and organization and the schedules outlining the order of work for preparing some of the meals will serve as useful guides.

The changes and additions which have been made incorporate the latest developments in home freezing and canning procedures, approved modern methods and new equipment. The book has been completely redesigned; the recipes are clearly arranged, easy to read and to follow.

Canada. New York 1: Minkus Publications, Inc., 115 West 30th Street. 1959. 36 pp. (8½" x 11"). Our good neighbor to the north, long popular with collectors, is presented in this three ring album. This profusely illustrated stamp album has numbers from the new world-wide stamp catalog in each space, and includes Canada and all of its provinces. Stories behind the stamps add to the beauty of this album. Yearly supplements are available.

CAVANNA, BETTY. *The Scarlet Sail.* New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 256 pp. \$2.95. The author has created a flesh-and-blood heroine whose emotional problems will be recognized by every girl who reads this warm, lighthearted novel.

COULTER, M. C. *The Story of the Plant Kingdom.* Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue. 1959. 336 pp. \$. This book, revised by Howard J. Dittmer, opens with a general discussion of the plants' basic life processes. Comparative examples are given throughout of the life processes of plants and animals, for, although the morphological development of these groups has gone in different directions, most of their physiological processes remain markedly similar.

Each separate organ—leaf, root, stem—is then described in terms of how it works, the forms it takes, the functions it performs, and the principles of its growth and development. Finally, the phyla of the plant kingdom are presented in full, from the simplest algae to the most complex of flowering plants. An important improvement in this edition is the introduction of the Tippo system of plant classification, which gained almost universal acceptance when it was first proposed in 1942. More logical from a phylogenetic point of view than earlier systems, it is also an easier one for the student to learn.

CURRIE, E. W. *Macbeth in Modern English.* Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman and Company, 433 E. Erie Street. 1959. 103 pp. Adapted from Shakespeare's famous play.

DECKER, DUANE. *Third-Base Rookie.* New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 186 pp. \$2.95. At last the years had taken their toll of Johnny Madigan, the Blue Sox' pint-sized third baseman. The originally derisive label, good-field-no-hit, had long ago become his badge of honor; but now his never too robust batting average had dropped to .243 and he was a full step slower going to his left. The front office had acquired the best third-base prospect in the league to take his place, giving up a fine veteran pitcher to get the prize rookie.

DELORIT, R. J., and H. L. AHLGREN. *Crop Production, Principles and Practices*, second edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1959. 660 pp. \$5.50. Within these pages are discussions of eighteen of the most important crops produced in this country. Additionally, there are chapters on the growth and reproduction of plants, pasture, hay-making, grass silage, crop rotation, green-manuring, and improvement of plants. There is a wealth of new material in this second edition. For example, there is information on such subjects as methods of insect and disease control; grass silage preservation;

fertilization and planting practices for corn; male sterility in the production of hybrid corn; chemical control methods for weeds; chemical defoliation in forage seed production; newly identified insects and diseases; and new grazing practices. And there is even a discussion of radioactivity and its influence on crop production.

Each crop or practice is treated in its entirety at one time. Therefore there is no need to read the entire book to find what is wanted at a particular time. All of the material is specific and down-to-earth. Instead of generalities, one finds information that can be applied to practical farm situations.

DEMING, DOROTHY. *Mysterious Discovery in Ward K.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 223 pp. \$2.75. An intriguing story about a mysterious patient who walks out of the hospital and disappears without a clue—that is, until the nurses, with the able assistance of Captain Cassidy and a young lawyer, piece together what has happened.

DERLETH, AUGUST. *The Mill Creek Irregulars: Special Detectives.* New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 E. 30th Street. 1959. 208 pp. \$3.50. Steve Grendon, with his big ideas and his imagination, and Sim Jones, with his good old horse sense, team up once again and get themselves deeply involved in a mystery that proves to be almost more of an adventure than they wanted. This time they form a band of special detectives, calling themselves the Mill Creek Irregulars, to solve the problem of the strange goings-on at a nearby farm.

DOBLER, LAVINIA. *Black Gold at Titusville.* New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 190 pp. \$3. Whenever Scott Caldwell took a walk with his dog, he always went by the abandoned oil spring where for years attempts had been made to abstract the heavy black liquid from the ground. So when Colonel Edwin L. Drake came to Titusville, Pennsylvania, to find a profitable way of obtaining oil in quantity, Scott found himself in complete sympathy with the older man's dream. Scott yearned to work with tools and machines—he did not want to be a farmer like his father. But there were many disappointments in store for Scott and the colonel before the well was finally driven in 1859.

DUGGAN, ALFRED. *Children of the Wolf.* New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 283 pp. \$3.95. In this novel of the founding of the Eternal City, the author brings to life the legendary children of the wolf, Romulus, and Remus, whose names heretofore have conjured up a misty vision of a heroic age, half-myth, half history.

ELMORE, W. C., and MATTHEW SANDS. *Electronics Experimental Techniques.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 330 W. 42nd Street. 1959. 435 pp. This volume is one of a series which has been prepared as a record of the research work done under the Manhattan Project and the Atomic Energy Commission. The collection of diagrams, a few reports, the two years of experience that the authors had in the Electronics Group, and the counsel of other staff members constituted the raw materials for this book. The circuits selected are arranged in five general categories, and these form the basis of Chapters 3 to 7. Certain "circuit elements," or parts of a complete circuit such as amplifier stages or blocking oscillators, are used repeatedly in the design of the complete circuits described. The elements most often used are presented separately in Chapter 2, and the circuits of later chapters are described in terms of these elements. Chapter 2 by itself should prove useful to those who desire to acquire a background of information for use in designing

electronic circuits for special applications. Chapter 1, "Circuit Components and Construction Practice," deals briefly with properties of such circuit components as resistors and capacitors, and with such problems as the physical layout of circuits. It gives a far from exhaustive account of these particular topics, since no systematic testing or selection of electronic components was undertaken at the Laboratory.

ERDMAN, L. G. *The Good Land*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 184 pp. \$3. Carolyn is fifteen and she is finding out how difficult it sometimes is for the youngest child of a big family to grow up. Things are complicated by her loyal—and misunderstood—intervention in the floundering romance of her loved sister Katie, her secret efforts to help some pathetic homesteaders, and her newlyfound awareness of Jim Foster, the neighbor boy who loves "the good land," the Panhandle, as much as she does.

EYRE, K. W. *The Chinese Box*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 35 W. 32nd Street. 1959. 320 pp. \$3.95. This book is a suspenseful novel set against one of the most fascinating backdrops in the world—the fabulous San Francisco of the early eighties.

FIELDS, JONATHAN. *The Memoirs of Dunstan Barr*. New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 382 pp. \$4.95. This family chronicle tells the story of the Barr family from the day in the 1830's when Christopher Barr journeyed west by Conestoga to the virgin lands of the Miami Valley, through the evolution of Barfield and its growth from a country town to a thriving mid-western city.

FINCH, V. C.; G. T. TREWARTHA; and M. H. SHEARER. *The Earth and Its Resources*, third edition. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1959. 592 pp. \$6. The authors present the basic facts concerning the earth as the home of man so that the student may realize their importance and understand their relationship to the problems of his own time and place. To this end, the major features of the physical earth are considered primarily as separate topics and secondarily in connection with the different regions of the earth. These features of our environment are discussed under the following main headings: (1) the atmosphere—weather and climate; (2) landforms—plains, plateaus, hill country, and mountains; (3) the oceans and their shores; (4) earth resources—waters, vegetation, soils, and minerals. This treatment is supplemented by an analysis of the various types of regions; for example, climatic regions and landform regions. The elements of the environment are further considered in their regional combinations and are viewed in the light of their value for man's economic and social use.

Serious effort has been made to keep both the content of the book and its language and vocabulary at a level that will be understandable to the beginning student in a subject which may be, and often is, treated in a highly technical manner. Technical terms are used sparingly and, when they are employed, are carefully explained. More than 450 maps, diagrams, and photographs in black and white and 15 pages of full-color maps have been included to illustrate the text material and to assist the student in visualizing the phenomena of the physical environment.

FINNEY, G. E. *Stormy Winter*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 246 pp. \$3.50. The story's action is based on confusion over the 1846 agreement to accept latitude 49° as a boundary from the Rocky Mountains to the channel between Vancouver

and the mainland. It should be a valuable addition to a little-known chapter in the history of the Puget Sound area.

FROHSE-BRODEL, et al. *Atlas of Human Anatomy*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 192 pp. \$2.95, paper. This new edition contains a complete summary of anatomy, wall charts in miniature, 104 illustrations with 49 in eight colors, and a detailed index.

GOUDGE, ELIZABETH. *My God and My All*. New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 317 pp. \$4.95. Here is Francis, from his 12th-century boyhood to his life as missionary to the very boundaries of the known world. Here too are the men and women who followed him—Bernard de Quintavalle, the rich businessman; Peter Cathannii, the lawyer; Brother Giles, the farmer's son; Lady Clare; and so many others—important people and little people, all drawn together by the personal magnetism and humble faith of their leader, all re-created by this novelist against a rich medieval canvas.

GARDNER, L. S. *Sal Fisher at Girl Scout Camp*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 217 pp. \$2.75. Sal searched through the enormous crowd of girls waiting for the bus to Camp Lenoloc. There wasn't a familiar face. All these other girls seemed to know each other; no one was going to have time to get acquainted with her, Sal thought mournfully. Suddenly she felt trapped. Why had she ever wanted to go to camp in the first place?

But it was too late to draw back now, and, as it turned out, Sal found plenty of friends—some of them girls who had looked unpromising at first, such as supercilious Stephanie; studious, city-bred Karen; and Denny, whose problem Sal could understand and sympathize with. And Sal found plenty of new experiences and excitement, too.

GRANBERG, W. J. *Spread the Truth*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 187 pp. \$3. As a boy, Horace Greeley moved with his parents from one rock farm to another, and the next one always was worse than the last. Sickly, skinny, usually underfed, he was known as "Ghost" to his playmates, but ghost he did not long remain. At fifteen he was apprenticed to a Vermont printer, publisher of a weekly newspaper. No sooner did he learn to set type than he began writing news stories which had a decided flavor of their own. He wrote the truth as he saw it, no matter who was offended, or what the next man thought.

Handbook of Job Facts. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 57 West Grand Avenue. 1959. 160 pp. \$3.95. The handbook is organized in a convenient chart form to give a concise outline of the world of work. SRA Guidance Service editors regard the handbook as a valuable guide for students in planning their future, and for teachers, guidance counselors, and parents who must help young people make wise career decisions.

HARKINS, PHILIP. *Breakaway Back*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 254 pp. \$2.95. Exciting and varied football action is only part of this story. With wisdom and humor, the author shows what happens in the classrooms of a first-rate prep school, and the effect that it has on this scornful and defiant, but wonderfully likeable hero.

HARLING, ROBERT. *The Endless Colonnade*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 254 pp. This book is the Bernini masterpiece that frames the Cathedral of St. Peter in Rome. To millions of tourists it represents the welcoming arms of the most famous square in the

world. But Rupert Frost knows that danger and death lurk behind its pillars for the man who carries the mysterious packet he has unwillingly acquired.

HART, JOHN. *The Royal Ballet*. New York 16: Coward-McCann, Inc., 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 160 pp. (7" x 10"). The Royal Ballet (formerly known as the Sadler's Wells Ballet) is world famous. Its American tours nowadays are always triumphal progresses. The names of its great ballerinas such as Dame Margot Fonteyn and of its male dancers such as Robert Soames are household words here as well as in Europe. The author, himself renowned as a distinguished member of this famous troupe, gives us an exceptionally intimate and informed view of the Royal Ballet's activities in this book. By virtue of his position, he has been able to photograph the company in actual performance—not in posed shots—at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, and, for a number of the best known ballets, he has taken a sequence of photographs illustrating the whole action from start to finish.

HEAFFORD, PHILIP. *The Math Entertainer*. New York 11: Emerson Books, Inc., 251 West 19th Street. 1959. 176 pp. \$2.95. The mathematical teasers, ticklers, twistlers, traps, and tricks here dangled before the reader are designed merely to puzzle, titillate, and delight.

HEATH, CAROLE. *The Girl from Heartsease Street*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 E. 30th Street. 1959. 187 pp. \$3. When Amy Winslow knew that her widowed mother could never afford the expense of sending her to college, she decided to get a job in the local factory as an office girl. To her surprise her work in the personnel department of the big Bridgeport Brass Company plant in Indianapolis proves anything but a humdrum affair. A new world opens up to her as she begins to realize the experiences of adult life.

HERRICK, J. W., and ERIC BURGESS, editors. *Rocket Encyclopedia Illustrated*. Los Angeles 26: Aero Publishers, Inc., 2162 Sunset Boulevard. 1959. 607 pp. (7 $\frac{3}{4}$ " x 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ "). \$12.50. The almost unbelievable pace of rocket progress during the last few years has brought about the urgent need for an accurate compilation of known rocket facts and theories of the world. This valuable information has now been collected. Included in encyclopedia form are thousands of authentic definitions of rocket technology—research, engineering, production, testing. Explanations of each term, plus captions on illustration details, make these definitions easy to understand.

There are more than 450 photos and drawings, many never published before, of rocket power and applications, propellants, engines, assemblies, components, accessories, systems engineering (including missiles), processing and production methods, test and ground equipment, military and industry facilities, and historical events, plus pages of abbreviations, symbols, engineering data, biographies of famous people, etc.

HINES, AUGUSTA, and E. W. WALPOLE. *Animal Crosswords*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 E. 30th Street. 1959. 96 pp. \$1.95. This book was designed after months of research and conferences with parents, teachers, child experts, and—most important—children themselves.

HINES, JACK. *Wolf Dogs of the North*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company, 56th and Chestnut Street. 1959. 202 pp. \$3. In this book the author tells the most thrilling and heart-rending canine dramas he witnessed or heard about when he lived through those hectic years among men gone mad with the lust for gold. No dog lover—no reader of Jack London and James

Oliver Curwood—will want to miss this stirring addition to his shelf of never-to-be-forgotten dog stories.

HOOVER, BYRD. *Beef For Beauregard!* New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 218 pp. \$3. Breck Garland wanted to leave the Texas frontier and fight for the Confederacy. After all, he was sixteen, "nearly grown." Wasn't it his duty to follow his two brothers into combat? Breck's father, Nance Garland, had the answer to that question: "No!" Nance had roared. Although Nance reluctantly had allowed his two older sons to join the Southern cause, he would not part with Breck. Nance had fought for Texas against Mexico. He knew the difference between war as a sixteen-year-old might dream of it and war as it really was.

How To Pass Annapolis and West Point Entrance Exams. New York 17: Arco Publishing Company, 480 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 216 pp. (8" x 10½"). \$3.50. This book combines study materials for hopefuls to both academies in one volume. Much of the subject matter in this compact new book is common to both schools; such as mathematics, vocabulary, spelling, writing techniques, literature, and history. Wherever the subject requirements differ, separate sections have been devised to guide the reader to the material that suits his particular purpose.

How To Pass Annapolis Entrance Exams. New York 17: Arco Publishing Company, 480 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 208 pp. (8" x 10½"). \$3. This new book asks, "What kind of a man is a Naval officer?" and answers, "He is a man of intelligence and decision, responsible in every respect for accomplishment of the tasks assigned him and for the human lives and property required to complete them. He has the ability to plan carefully and a decided flair for organization. He is a tactful and diplomatic representative of the United States at home and abroad. The Navy is a powerful instrument of defense and the Naval officer is required to adopt and live by one standard—'The Good of the Service.'" The young man who feels that he possesses these high standards and wants to become a member of the world's leading sea power must first pass the basic entrance requirements. It is to assist him in passing these basics that this book was designed.

How To Pass West Point Entrance Exams. New York 17: Arco Publishing Company, 480 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 208 pp. (8" x 10½"). \$3. This book presents the basic requirements for the military minded young man who desires to make the U. S. Army his career and who desires to obtain membership in the time honored U. S. Military Academy at West Point. From the opening pages, the candidate is led step by step through the long and difficult steps for obtaining admission. He is told what the general requirements are for acceptance and nomination and then he is given actual sample examinations, questions and answers, to prepare him mentally. He is shown the inside track on psychological examinations, scholastic aptitude, and achievement tests. The various categories that he must be proficient in are covered: mathematics, reading comprehension, practice vocabulary, how to build basic and advanced vocabulary, numerical relations, and graph and chart interpretation. Nothing is overlooked to assist the candidate, including the final chapter that tells him how to do the best on his test.

HUTCHINS, R. E. *Insect Builders and Craftsmen.* Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600. 1959. 96 pp. \$2.95. The author discusses first the natural tools of these insects: their skill, which is a part of their inheritance, passed down from parent to offspring from a million past

generations; and their ability to learn. Then he takes up the specific builders and craftsmen—the paper makers, the carpenters and tailors, the honey makers, the mushroom growers, the strange dwellers in trees. He takes us to an insect city beneath the prairie, and tells us about many kinds of homes the insects build—of clay, of sticks and stones, and so on.

International World Atlas. Chicago 80: Rand McNally and Company, P. O. Box 7600. 1959. 24 pp. 29¢. Four-color double-spread maps of the World, U. S., Canada, Mexico, and every continent—completely accurate and up-to-date.

JACKSON, C. P. *Bud Plays Junior High Basketball.* New York 22: Hastings House, 151 E. 50th Street. 1959. 178 pp. \$2.95. In this story, Bud's greatest ambition is to make the Roosevelt Junior High varsity basketball team. Last year's championship team is still there to be contended with except for one guard. Who will get this coveted position?

JOHANSEN, M. A. *Voyagers West.* New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 245 pp. \$3.50. This book is an account of the explorations and daily lives of Erik, Leif, and all those other brave Vikings who lived so long ago and had such a part in the westward push toward the settlement of the North American continent. Here is a vivid picture of Norse culture and the people who lived during those exciting times on Iceland and Greenland.

KEMP, C. F. *Preparing for the Ministry.* St. Louis 3, Missouri: The Bethany Press, P. O. Box 179. 1959. 128 pp. \$1.50. Discusses careers in the ministry and the church vocations.

Kiplinger's Family Buying Guide. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1959. 384 pp. \$4.95. This book tells how to get a fair deal on everything from pots and pans to split level houses. Follow the advice in this book and one can raise his over-all purchasing power 10 to 20 per cent. This book gives an expert approach to every buying situation faced. It answers in detail any questions a consumer may have—to help him make his dollars work harder.

KOURY, PHIL. *Yes, Mr. DeMille.* New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 319 pp. \$4.50. Brimming with anecdotes, warmly personal, this book is a study of Hollywood's most feared pasha, the late Cecil B. DeMille, a man who created legends more fascinating than his film spectacles. An unpredictable, not-so-affable, tyrant, filmdom's "most flamboyant peacock," Mr. DeMille marched armies across vast deserts, spent fortunes to simulate the grandeur of ancient Egypt and Rome and re-enact Biblical miracles, and tyrannized his loyal associates for more than fifty years.

LAIRD, DONALD and ELEANOR. *Sound Ways to Sound Sleep.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1959. 200 pp. \$4.50. Americans spend \$60 millions a year for sleeping pills. And yet, say the authors of this authoritative book, sleep—"the original and natural tranquilizer"—needs no artificial stimulus. This book tells you how to get the most out of your sleep through the use of natural methods. Basing their book on the research findings of more than 50 scientists, the authors answer many perplexing questions about sleep, about what nature expects of you in the way of sleep, and what you may expect of nature.

LANG, G. E., editor. *Canada.* New York 52: H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue. 1959. 188 pp. \$2.50. This book is divided into five sections under the general headings of Canada and the Canadians; The Con-

servatives Come to Power; Canada, the Commonwealth and the World; Economic Growing Pains; and Diversity and Unity. In its entirety, the compilation gives a broad, remarkably informative picture of Canada today.

LEY, WILLY. *Exotic Zoology*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1959. 468 pp. \$4.95. The extremely diverse inhabitants of the author's extraordinary zoo have one thing in common—about each of them there is, or has been, a mystery. Some of the mysteries have been solved. In this category are those of the fossil reptile *Chirotherium*, reconstructed from its footprints alone, and the common eel, whose method of reproduction and breeding grounds long defied research. Another kind of detection consists of tracing the factual foundations, sometimes physical, sometimes linguistic, for various long-lived "myths," some remarkably well founded—such as the unicorn legend. Then there are mysteries still unsolved but hopeful of solution—the "abominable snowman" of the Himalayas; the "great unknown of the seas," for whose existence there is an impressive body of evidence; and the "medium-sized dinosaur" of Central Africa, that repository of curious fauna so like preglacial fossils found in Europe.

MALVERN, GLADYS. *Blithe Genius*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 202 pp. \$2.95. Son of an itinerant trumpet player and an untrained singer, what fame can ever come to that handsome ragamuffin, Giacomo Rossini? Yet when the family fortunes hit bottom, the nine-year-old boy races off to ask if he might be paid for singing. He is taken on, for who could deny that exquisite voice? He seems to know, without learning, all that distinguished masters can show him.

MARTIN, M. A. *The Martins of Gunbarrel*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1959. 280 pp. \$5. This narrative tells of the Martins' experiences with dudes, cooks, and neighbors; of the beauty of the country in which they lived in all its seasons; of the problems of adjustment to frontier living and how they were met; and of a city girl's final acceptance by the Westerners among whom she had come to make her home. As a bride of the 1920's, living in an isolated mountain cabin with no conveniences except a telephone, and only skis and snowshoes for transportation, the author didn't have to be reminded that she had, indeed, "hired out to be tough."

MAUROIS, ANDRE. *The Life of Sir Alexander Fleming*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 293 pp. \$5. Alexander Fleming was born in Scotland in 1881 and died, world-famous, in 1955. During his boyhood years, spent in rural Ayrshire, he received a good part of his education from observing and analyzing everything about him when he took long walks through the countryside. It was on these walks that the alert, inquisitive "Alec" first developed the keen powers of observation which served him so well when, at the age of twenty-one, he began his medical career in St. Mary's Hospital in London. Influenced by his teacher, Sir Almroth Wright, he decided to dedicate his life to the struggle against infection. In 1921 came his first important discovery, lysozyme, a predecessor of penicillin, and in 1929 followed the miracle of penicillin itself, which was to prove a major blessing to mankind while it won for Fleming world-wide acclaim and a share in the award of a Nobel Prize in Medicine.

MCCALEB, W. F. *The Mier Expedition*. San Antonio 6, Texas: Naylor Company, Box 1838. 1959. 122 pp. \$2. This book is another in the series of stories for elementary reading about famous men and places in Texas history.

McCORMICK, WILFRED. *Five Yards to Glory*. New York 18: David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 180 pp. \$3. This is a dramatic tale of the gridiron, full of action and suspense and packed with more of the realistic problems that have made each preceding volume in this series an exciting adventure for young readers everywhere. Once more the story centers around Rocky McCune, the dynamic young coach of Koulee High. Rocky runs into plenty of trouble when he decides to protect a player that the home fans practically demand must be run out of town.

McGIFFIN, LEE. *Rebel Rider*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 157 pp. \$2.95. To Ben Fane, war was a glory road with handsome uniforms, plumes, and shining sabers. Bitter at being left behind by his older brother, he ran off to Virginia where he found war was not a valiant parade with banners in the sun.

McKOWN, ROBIN. *Marie Curie*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 128 pp. \$2.50. Albert Einstein summed up the greatest scientific deed of Marie Curie's life as "proving the existence of radioactive elements and isolating them." Her discoveries changed completely the basic concepts of science. No longer could matter be considered motionless. Atoms were not tiny solids but galaxies with a nucleus as sun and electrons as planets spinning in orbit around it. Incredible power lurked in particles so small no microscope could make them visible. Marie Curie's work began a new era—the Atomic Age.

MEADER, S. W. *Wild Pony Island*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1959. 192 pp. \$2.95. Written out of firsthand experience on the island and with a special love of sea and shore, this book will give readers of all ages a vivid picture of a boy growing up in a beautiful and unspoiled part of our country.

MINER, F. M. *Adventure Book of Growing Plants*. New York 3: Capitol Publishing Company, 737 Broadway. 1959. 96 pp. (7" x 10"). This book enables the young student to find out for himself, through simple experiments, some of the important facts regarding the way plants live and reproduce.

MIREAUX, EMILE. *Daily Life in the Time of Homer*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 264 pp. \$4. This was a world in which man lived in close and constant relation with gods and demigods, who could manifest themselves in every shape or form, a world in which everyday incidents could take on a special premonitory meaning. But after explaining Homeric man's relation to his gods and his conception of the world in a geographical sense, the author goes on to describe the lives of aristocrats, noblemen, intellectuals, peasants, soldiers, craftsmen, artisans, public servants, beggars, and exiles. He describes life within the family, the occupations and status of women, the popular festivals and the funeral rites, and the public games. He tells too, about houses and furniture, clothes and weapons, decorations and food, work and leisure, sports and pastimes, medicine, soothsaying, vendettas, commerce and carriage, and every conceivable aspect of daily life in the time of Homer.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD. *Missile Away*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc., 124 E. 30th Street. 1959. 158 pp. \$3. First Lieutenant Kent Barstow, USAF, at first thought it was funny that his new mission was a rocket job. But the head of Special Intelligence saw nothing amusing in the situation and, under Colonel Jefferys' cold stare, Kent's smile faded away. The Colonel saw that only one element was sure about the new assignment—

danger. Later Kent Barstow understood why. That was when he was flying a Voodoo jet far down range from Cape Canaveral, headed with his buddy Spud Murphy for a weird rendezvous with an unknown enemy.

MONTGOMERY, RUTHERFORD, editor. *A Saddlebag of Tales*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 251 pp. \$3. It's roundup time again and a group of experienced writers, all members of Western Writers of America, have dug into their saddlebags and come up with a collection of fast-paced Western stories ranging from Old West to Tibet. They are not all horse stories—one is about a yak!—but all pack a wallop. Teen-agers are not apt to put this book down until the last story is read.

MORGAN, ALFRED. *Aquarium Book for Boys and Girls*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 214 pp. \$3. There is a good deal to know about keeping an aquarium. In this book the author gives the information clearly, definitely, and in a most readable way. He not only tells all about taking care of an aquarium and vivarium, but also gives interesting facts about fishes, frogs, toads, turtles, salamanders, and alligators.

MURRAY, W. A. *Appointment in Tibet*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 284 pp. \$3.95. The first, faint rumor of the Russian plan to enslave the world by force, not yet recognizable as such, is brought to John Taunt, well-known artist and explorer, at his home in West Scotland by a young woman whose fiancé has mysteriously disappeared on the frontier of Tibet. She seeks help, and she has clues that lead her and Taunt first to the storm-tossed waters of the Hebrides, where hard sailing brings them into conflict with the agents of an unknown secret service, then to the Pyrenees-rimmed southwest coast of France, and finally to the frontiers of Tibet, Nepal, and India. The duel that began as an attempt to save one individual's life now entails the fate of all free nations and is fought out on the bare plateau of Tibet, the snow-plastered passes of the Himalayas, the wooded valley of Nepal, and the foothills of India.

NEBLETTE, C. B. *Photographic Lens Manual and Directory*. New York 17: Morgan and Morgan Inc., 101 Park Avenue. 1959. 112 pp. \$3.50; paper bound, \$1.95. Since the largest single investment made by most photographers is in lenses, this book has been prepared, in response to many requests, as a guide to the wise use and economical choice of lenses. It is a new, practical guide to every type of camera lens: what it is, how it is designed, what to use it for and—most important—what it will do for the photographers. The basic principles of optics are also fully explained, as is the important question of the choice and testing of lenses.

A special feature of the book is the first *World Wide Directory of Photographic Lenses*. This lens directory contains the name, maker and details of construction, performance and comparative merits of over 400 different lenses from 57 manufacturers in the world's leading lens producing countries. To illustrate this directory there are 106 cross-section diagrams of the basic lens types, conveniently grouped by purpose and camera size. The lens directory covers both interchangeable and permanently mounted lenses and thus fills the needs of all photographers. As added guidance for the photographer, there is a section of practical advice on the choice and testing of photographic lenses, which makes the whole problem exceedingly clear. There is also a complete section on lens development, design, and general characteristics, explaining the basic principles of photographic optics.

NEVINS, ALLAN. *John D. Rockefeller*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 371 pp. \$5.95. This is an extraordinary book about an extraordinary man. Rockefeller was "not a mere rearranger or manipulator of existing forces: he was a creator of new ideas and systems. By his clarity of thought, keenness of foresight, and strength of purpose, he made his life an important part of the nation's history." Rockefeller built Standard Oil—"one of the most powerful, complex, and efficient organizations ever created." He also gave away \$550,000,000 to philanthropic causes. This represented no sudden impulse, but the determination of a lifetime. At the age of sixteen, when he was earning less than six dollars a week, he managed to give to charity almost as much as he spent on his clothes.

NEWKIRK, L. V. *General Shop for Everyone*. Boston 16, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 285 Columbus Avenue. 1959. 288 pp. \$3.80. This book provides all the text material needed for a well-rounded general shop course. In it students will find fundamental information about job planning, drafting, woodworking, metalworking, electricity, plastics, leatherwork, and other common phases of general shopwork. Each of the six units gives information about a particular industry and its workers; explains how to use common hand tools and simple machines; calls special attention to safety precautions; gives useful consumer information; provides projects, problems, and review questions; describes and illustrates tools and materials for interesting hobbies to enjoy in the home workshop.

Suggested projects for each unit include articles that appeal to students in rural areas as well as in cities, to girls as well as to boys. These projects, chosen for their effectiveness as teaching tools, help students to understand and to learn. It is illustrated with sharp, clear photographs and carefully prepared drawings.

NILAND, D'ARCY. *Be Your Own Editor*. New York 16: M. Barrows and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 128 pp. \$3. This book gives invaluable hints on plotting, character, mood, setting, dialogue—making all the slight changes that may be keeping the writer from enjoying a successful literary career. An additional feature of the book is the special Self-Check Guide that helps the beginning writer to determine whether his stories meet the exacting standards of editors, and if not, how to improve them so that they do.

O'BRIEN, BRIAN. *Scrimshaw and Sudden Death*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 245 pp. \$3.50. Lester Mosher, one of the last of the old-time whaling captains, was a lad of fifteen when he sailed as a green hand aboard the whaleship *Canton*. This is the gripping, detailed account of that two-year voyage, as he learned his trade of hunting the biggest game in the world.

O'CLERY, HELEN. *The Mystery of Black Sod Point*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 210 pp. \$2.95. Why did the fishing nets keep breaking in the waters off Black Sod Point? When Uncle Tony visited Dublin, he told Caroline about the trouble in his village on the west coast of Ireland. Caroline decided that she and her friend Brona should go to Black Sod Point to help Uncle Tony solve the mystery.

OFFICE OF THE FEDERAL REGISTER OF THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES AND RECORDS SERVICE, and GENERAL SERVICES ADMINISTRATION, compilers. *United States Government Organization Manual, 1959-60*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1959. 803 pp.

\$1.50, paper. This manual contains sections on the legislative, judicial, and executive branches. It outlines the legislative authority, purpose, functions, and activities of each agency; includes 42 charts showing the organization of Congress, the executive departments and the large independent agencies; and lists more than 4200 key officials. Of particular interest to researchers is a 58-page section containing brief histories of Federal agencies whose functions have been abolished or transferred since March 4, 1933.

PALMER, L. S. *Man's Journey Through Time*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 15 E. 40th Street. 1959. 200 pp. Recent discoveries of the remains of primitive men in Africa, China, Java, and Palestine have supplied many new facts concerning our early ancestors and their modes of life. Because of the work of astronomers, geologists, physicists, pollen-analysts and others, it is now possible to date these skeletal remains and cultural relics with some precision.

In this book—a first step in the new subject of anthropochronology—the author has collected together all the important evidence from these different fields of study, and shows in a simple and graphic manner how men, in their journey through a million years of time, have gradually developed from a relatively few ape-like creatures to the millions of human beings who now inhabit this earth. The marked difference in their physical or anatomical development compared with their cultural or intellectual development is clearly depicted. In the last chapter, the consequences of these different rates of development are discussed and some consideration is given to the probable trend of man's journey into the atomic age which now lies before him.

PATTON, PRICE A., and MARTHA. *Money in Your Pocket*. New York 18: David McKay Co., Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 189 pp. \$3.50. The chapters deal with problems created by poor financial management, show how a sound financial program can be started in the teen years and encompass the growing responsibilities through high school, college, and the first years of marriage. Consumer credit, financing, and banking procedures are explained.

PATTON, WILLOUGHBY. *Sea Venture*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 158 pp. \$2.95. Young Michael is delighted to be sailing on the *Sea Venture* bound from Plymouth, England, for the Virginia Colony. If only he might work toward being a shipwright like his father instead of a tanner like his Uncle Enoch. Michael makes himself as useful as he can, remembering his friend Peter's comforting words that perhaps Uncle Enoch will change his mind about his apprenticeship. When the *Sea Venture* springs a leak, Michael drives in oakum alongside the men, trying to save the ship. But she piles up on some rocks and the colonists land on the Isle of Devils as the sailors call the land named Bermuda.

PEARL, R. M. *1001 Questions Answered About the Mineral Kingdom*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company, 432 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 344 pp. \$6. This thorough survey of the wonderful world of minerals, rocks, ores, gems, and meteorites makes clear their scientific, industrial, commercial, cultural, and hobby importance in our life and environment today. Water supplies, radioactive minerals, and fossil fuels are covered, along with the other dramatic phases of greatest interest to the student, collector, and prospector, as well as to the ordinary citizen who wants to know more about these important subjects to increase his understanding of the modern world.

The question-and-answer style is designed for easy reference to the unusual variety of the contents. Drawings and photographs illustrate the book, and a bibliography and comprehensive index are included.

PITKIN, DOROTHY. *The Grass Was That High*. New York 14: Pantheon Book Inc., 333 Sixth Avenue. 1959. 192 pp. \$2.95. Kit's first vacation in Vermont, away from Old Greenwich, her sailboat, and Allie, her best friend, looks as if it will be a summer with absolutely nothing to do, lonely and boring. And yet this becomes a magical summer. Kit is drawn out of her introspective broodings by the bustling life on the farm, with its kind people, its hard work, its constant emergencies. Above all there is Hilltop, the little bull calf Kit decides to raise and groom for the cattle show, relying on the help of resourceful, understanding Jettson. But Kit's friendship with Jettson has to go through all the strains and stresses of adolescent feeling.

RANDALL, JANET. *Tumbleweed Heart*. New York 18: Longmans, Green, and Company, 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 189 pp. \$2.95. Arroyo Verde, a small desert town in California, should be proud to have the editorial services of Jackie Corda. Jackie knows she has the ability and it hurts her that Kathleen, who is as fine as she is pretty, defeated her in the election to the school paper. Then Jackie applies for a small job on the *Arroyo Verde* newspaper and wins it. Now she starts learning things the best way, through experiences of her own.

RICHARDS, H. G. *The Story of Earth Science*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, E. Washington Square. 1959. 169 pp. \$3.75. Here is a book which brings together three phases of earth science—rocks, fossils, and minerals. It is written for the layman who wants not only to learn about earth science but also to start a collection of rocks, fossils, and minerals.

ROSS, EMORY and MYRTA. *Africa Disturbed*. New York 10: Friendship Press, 257 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 192 pp. \$3.50 cloth, \$1.95 paper. "A key work in Africa today is 'disturbed,'" say the authors in this unique interview-and-analysis study of the African scene. On the coast and in the forest, in deserts and on mountains, on lakes and rivers, in swamps and savannahs, villages and great cities, in tribal councils and the new legislative assemblies, all Africa is disturbed.

RYDBERG, ERNIE. *The Mystery in the Jeep*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 156 pp. \$2.95. Lefty plots for a date with the pretty, new girl in town. When friend Frankie executes counter plots, he is delighted to find Gloria is as understanding as she is fun. The two certainly did not expect to be working on a real mystery, involving the police. Their jeep is ridden off the road and the two books they had picked up only to be helpful were forcibly taken from them—and, within a few hours, they turn in some very valuable information.

SCHOLZ, JACKSON. *The Perfect Game*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 253 pp. \$2.95. Clay Morgan, a young bull-pen pitcher for the New York Titans, was picked, to his surprise, to pitch the final game in the World Series. He had enjoyed a fair degree of success during his brief career; but no one, least of all Clay himself, could have anticipated the glorious deed that he now performed. With the aid of his catcher, who signaled every pitch, Clay hurled a perfect game—no hits, no runs, no walks, no errors made behind him—and won the World Series for the Titans.

SEVERN, BILL. *Shadow Magic*. New York 18: David McKay, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1959. 179 pp. \$3. For thousands of years, people have been fascinated by the fun of making shadows. This book of shadow plays, games, tricks, shows, puppets, and silhouettes tells of the entertaining ways to catch shadows and to show them. It also tells the little-known story of the shadow makers, from the Cave men to the performers in the ancient shadow theater of the Orient, and the shadow fads that swept Europe and America in the days before the Civil War.

SHELTON, JESS. *Brood of Fury*. Philadelphia 39: Chilton Company. 1959. 423 pp. \$4.95. The tempestuous story of a Missouri family, men of voracious appetites and unbridled lusts, who made of the Civil War and its aftermath an instrument of savage personal vengeance. Into the warp and woof of the larger struggle is woven the ferocious family feud that rages intermittently over hill and valley for a wild, snarling, bloody four years—Williamsses standing against Landrys in a clan loyalty so blind and fierce as to know no law but its own lawlessness.

SIEVERS, H. J. *Benjamin Harrison: Hoosier Statesman*. New York 22: University Publishers, Inc., 59 East 54th Street. 1959. 524 pp. \$6. A rousing campaign orator, Harrison rose quickly in politics, first as an active member of the new Republican party, then as junior senator from Indiana during the Arthur and Cleveland administrations. Colorful issues and personalities confronted him in his new public life. The 1880's in America was an era of open patronage and flamboyant political quarrels: the battle of the Western Territories for statehood, the "Greenbackers," the "Chinese Problem" on the Pacific Coast, and the metamorphosis of the "Boys in Blue" into the young and powerful G.A.R. The political scene knew personalities like Blaine, the "Plumed Knight" from Maine; Whitelaw Reid, owner of the *New York Tribune*; "Boss" Quay of Pennsylvania; "Boss" Platt of New York; and Morton of Indiana. For Harrison, the most important of them all was Louis T. Michener—Indiana friend and President maker, the man behind Harrison's hard-won presidential nomination and his subsequent victory over Grover Cleveland in the 1888 election.

This book, second volume in the author's projected three-volume history of Indiana's only President, depicts the "middle years" of Harrison, grandson of "Old Tippecanoe," ninth President of the United States. The author has recreated some of the most turbulent and exciting decades of our history in this biography of an American of character and courage.

SIMISTER, F. P. *Girl With a Musket*. New York 22: Hastings House, Inc., 151 E. 50th Street. 1959. 116 pp. \$2.75. Have you ever wanted to fight for your country even though you are a girl? Many women, during the Revolutionary War wanted to do more for the cause of freedom than custom allowed them to do. One girl in Massachusetts, Deborah Sampson, disguised herself as a boy and enlisted in the army. This novel, based on that fact, takes place in Rhode Island against a background of authentic military action, and the heroine is Anne Saunders, a Rhode Islander.

SIMON, KATE. *New York Places and Pleasures*. New York 3: Meridian Books, Inc., 17 Union Square. 1959. 352 pp. Stiff paper cover, \$1.95. This guidebook presents a wealth of information about the city. Here is information about its people, its foods, sights, places, and pleasures of present-day New York. It describes the familiar and unfamiliar, the trod and the untrod, the beat and the off-beat—with names and addresses where necessary, times of

opening and closing, where pertinent, and prices.

SMITH, KEN. *Baseball's Hall of Fame*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway. 1959. 254 pp. Every person who has ever seen a baseball game will be interested in this story of the Hall of Fame for baseball immortals at Cooperstown, New York. How the site came to be chosen, who the men are, and how they are elected, their stories and achievements—are found here in the panorama of baseball's colorful past.

SMITH, O. J. M. *Feedback Control Systems*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1958. 717 pp. \$13.50. Here is a unified philosophy for the analysis and design of all types of feedback systems. There is much in common in the dynamics of different systems, whether in economics, sociology, government, conservation, biological populations, process control, mechanics, or guidance. The components of these systems are part of the open-loop characteristics. The job that has to be done, and the way that the system does it, are specifications on the closed-loop characteristics.

Analysis is the prediction of closed-loop characteristics from information concerning the given components only. This book presents the rigorous relationship between the open-loop transient, sinusoidal, or statistical response and the closed-loop transient, noise, and disturbances in an analytical form. From any one of the six responses above, the other five may be computed. The closed-loop transient response is available from open-loop measurable data like vector margin and vector attenuation.

Intended for the first year of graduate study, this textbook is designed for the reader who has had at least one previous course in control systems or feedback systems and has studied statistics from the viewpoint of Fourier and Laplace transforms, random gaussian signals, weighting functions, and cross-power spectra.

SPANGENBERG, K. R. *Fundamentals of Electron Devices*. New York 30: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1957. 517 pp. Here, the author presents a unified fundamental treatment of electron devices including vacuum tubes and transistors, with emphasis on their similar features, rather than their differences, through the common denominator of semiconductor theory. The book stresses the internal physics of the devices and discusses the role physics plays in determining the external characteristics. A fundamental treatment of commonest circuit applications is also included; about 60% of the book is devoted to the devices themselves, 40% to their circuit applications.

A new approach is represented in the detailed treatment of energy levels in semiconductors and the influence of these on junction effects, emission, and photo-effects. There is an unusual emphasis on the analogous features of vacuum tubes and transistors. Recent advances include the latest forms of transistors and photo-conductive and photovoltaic cells. The numerous problems contained in the text are intended to be suggestive rather than exhaustive. Eleven appendixes give the origin of basic relations and tabulate important facts. A bibliography of more than 200 references, keyed throughout the text, is included.

STAFFORD, M. P. *Discoverer of the North Pole*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 220 pp. \$3. The temperature was sixty-four degrees below zero, and biting winds blew the snow into a blinding drift. A small group of men, exhausted from lack of sleep and the strain of hauling sledges over the rough snow, trudged through

the bitter Arctic night, not knowing whether their food supply would last or whether the shelter they were seeking still existed. With death very near—as it always is in the Arctic—they were sustained by the courage of their leader in this daring expedition, Robert Edwin Peary.

STEEN, E. B., and M. F. ASHLEY. *Anatomy and Physiology*. New York 3: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 105 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 350 pp. \$2.50. This book summarizes the main facts of anatomy and physiology including applications to common disorder and diseases. Many illustrations are used.

STEINBERG, ALFRED. *Daniel Webster*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 128 pp. \$2.50. Life was never easy for "Black Dan," as he was affectionately called. The ninth of ten children, he had to fight illness and poverty to get an education. Tragedy followed his private life, and his greatest political ambition, that of being elected President of the United States, was never realized. Yet he was hailed as the "Defender of the Constitution," and to him goes the credit for having delayed the Civil War long enough to prevent a permanent split in the Union. His ringing statement in that time of crisis has provided the guiding philosophy for the nation: "Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable!"

STEINBERG, S. H., editor. *The Statesman's Year-Book*, 1959. New York 10: St. Martin's Press, 175 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 1705 pp. \$9.50. This book, now in its ninety-sixth annual edition, is the most authoritative, up-to-date work of reference available. It contains in one volume not only all the essential facts scattered throughout the many different international yearbooks, but also a wealth of additional data obtained from reliable private sources. It is entirely unbiased in its presentation of matters of current topical interest, and, being an independent publication, it is not hampered by any restrictions that may apply to official statistical publications.

In addition to the usual information on every topic of interest to statesmen, economists, statisticians, geographers, journalists, teachers, and students, the 1959 edition features: (1) the reorganization of France and the French community under De Gaulle; (2) Alaska as the 49th state; (3) the organization of the United Arab Republic; (4) latest available material on all the air forces of the world; (5) the railway system of the USSR (with reference to the railway system in China); (6) complete revision of material on Latin American countries.

TABER, GLADYS. *Spring Harvest*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 256 pp. \$3.95. So much can happen in those last college weeks before Commencement! And so much did happen, to students and to faculty members and even to townspeople, in those lovely long days in the spring of 1914 at the little co-educational college of Westerly in Wisconsin.

TV and Film Production Data Book. New York 17: Morgan and Morgan, Inc., 101 Park Avenue. 1959. 448 pp. \$6.95. This compact, fact-filled handbook presents a wealth of useful techniques and working data proved by experience to be the basis for profitable production in the closely related television, video tape, and motion picture fields. The 448 easy-to-read, illustrated pages of equipment, procedures, products, specifications, instructions, data and tables, supply answers to the thousands of questions asked daily by supervisory, planning, and production staffs. There are over 198,000 words in a volume that is light enough to carry in a pocket.

THORNDIKE, T. L., and ELIZABETH HAGEN. *10,000 Careers*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 440 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 356 pp. \$8.50. This book reports the outcomes of a study of 17,000 men who were given a battery of aptitude tests in 1943. In 1955 and 1956 information was obtained from over 10,000 of these men about the educational and vocational history of each. The analysis of aptitude test scores for these 10,000 men in relation to their later careers provides the substance of the work. The authors have found out what kind of work each man is now doing and have also tried to get at least rough measures of his success in the occupation. For this last, they have used his reported earned income, his self-rating of success and satisfaction, and their over-all appraisal of his occupational stability and progress.

The 10,000 cases have been subdivided into over 100 groups, each representing a single occupation or group of closely related occupations. For each of these groups the authors have found the typical or average score on each of the tests. In addition, they have studied each of the tests in relation to each of the job groups, and determined to what extent the test scores predicted success in the occupation, insofar as they were able to estimate success. The study is completely unique with respect to (1) the size of the group, (2) the comprehensiveness of the test battery, and (3) the length of time over which the group was followed up. It promises to be the major source of data for anyone teaching or working in the field of vocational guidance or personnel selection.

TINDALE, N. B., and H. A. LINDSAY. *Rangatira*. New York 22: Franklin Watts, Inc., 575 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 208 pp. \$2.95. This is the account of two Australian anthropologists' experience on the sea, and the hazards these gentle Polynesians met as they settled in the land which is now New Zealand. These two authors, making full use of their long study of the subject, have constructed a vivid, fascinating story of these early Maori people of whose later days Melville wrote in *Typee*.

TURNER, J. F. *Invasion: '44*. New York 16: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 210 Madison Avenue. 1959. 248 pp. \$3.95. In the pre-dawn darkness of the 6th of June the greatest armada the world has ever seen began to disembark an Allied invasion force on the beaches of France's Normandy peninsula. It was the largest amphibious assault ever attempted. This book tells the story of that assault from the day over four years earlier and only a few short weeks after the British disaster at Dunkirk when a few individuals in the English High Command began to turn their thought to the possibilities of an eventual return to the mainland, up to the time when the Allied beachhead was firmly established on French soil.

VANCE, MARGUERITE. *Ashes of Empire*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 159 pp. \$2.95. One of the most poignant stories in modern history is the turbulent Mexican reign of the young royal couple, Carlota and Maximilian. Behind the holocaust which reduced to ashes Maximilian and Carlota's dream of Utopia in Mexico, one glimpses the smoldering ambition and pride of dynasties lost in time.

WALLACE, LEW. *Ben Hur*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 571 pp. 50¢. One of the most exciting and inspiring novels ever written.

WATERS, A. S. *The Melody Maker*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1959. 220 pp. \$3.25. The lilting melodies of

the Gilbert and Sullivan operettas rang through the London streets of Queen Victoria's England, found their way across the Atlantic to take America by storm. This was a success that their young composer, Arthur Sullivan, had only dreamed might be his. He had yearned to gain recognition of his serious music and only reluctantly had agreed to collaborate with the unpopular, irascible Gilbert.

In the intervening years, Gilbert—colorful, stormy, and egotistical—has tended to overshadow the gentle, winsome Sullivan. But here Arthur emerges as a vivid personality, a modest, dedicated child, driven from obscurity to fortune by an unrelenting genius. This is a warmly personal story of a boy whose beautiful voice assured his acceptance in the Chapel Royal Choir, whose talent won him the coveted Mendelssohn Scholarship, who found himself the toast of London at twenty.

WHILING, J. N. *How You Can Grow Beautiful Roses*. New York 17: Arco Publishing Co., Inc., 480 Lexington Avenue. 1959. 144 pp. \$2.50. For the flower lover who just doesn't seem to have the necessary "green thumb" to do it himself, as well as for the experienced hand who desires more technical knowledge, the editor and publisher of *Flower Grower, The Home Garden Magazine*, have prepared this book. This illustrated book has a range of information basic enough for the new hobbyist and technical enough for the experienced rosarian.

The author gives "A Beginning Look at Roses" in the first chapter and proceeds through a basic "Recognizing Roses" to a detailed account of every species from hybrid teas to miniature roses. Chapters cover floribundas, climbing roses, tree roses, even "grandmother's roses." Detailed step-by-step instructions impart the information the rose grower wants to know. An "instruction-in-photos" series tells and shows "How To Plant and Care for a Rose Plant."

A special chapter, "The Soil in Your Garden," details the testing, care, and preparation of soil in relation to rose growing. Summer, fall, and winter care is specifically covered, and a chapter on "Tools and Techniques" outlines the how-to. "Designing the Rose Garden" and "The Art of Arranging Roses" are chapters that show how to get the most aesthetic value from the hobby. Artistic arrangements, both indoors and out, are shown—with instructions on how to achieve these beautiful results. A final chapter, "Questions and Answers," imparts much helpful information—plus a list of rose gardens to visit. These are arranged by city and state.

WILHEMS, F. T., and R. P. HEIMERL. *Workbook for Consumer Economics, Principles and Problems*. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division of McGraw-Hill Company, 330 W. 42nd Street. 1959. 128 pp. This workbook has been prepared to accompany the second edition of the textbook of the same title. It is composed of 32 units. Each of these pupil units is divided into four parts: Draw your own conclusion, Exploring key ideas, Solving everyday consumer problems, and Weighing current consumer issues. While some of the items within each part of the unit are questions to fill in blanks, most of them are of the thought and reasoning types. Stress is placed on developing the pupil's ability to do real critical thinking, being able to form sound judgments as well as to weigh facts.

With Napoleon In Russia. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap, Inc., 1107 Broadway. 1935. 447 pp. \$1.65. In August 1933, an architect looking among the ruins of General Armand de Caulaincourt's old chateau in Picardy, noticed a battered iron chest in a pile of debris. On opening the chest, he

discovered the long-lost original manuscript of General de Caulaincourt's fabulous memoirs. Upon study, these memoirs turned out to be the most important discovery of Napoleonic materials in our time, for in them was a complete eye-witness account of how the Emperor planned and fought his greatest and most disastrous war—his invasion of Russia. Here are revealed not only the thoughts and actions of the great Emperor as recorded by his most distinguished aide and confidant, but also startling insights into the enigmatic character and ways of the Russians, whom Caulaincourt knew well since he had been Ambassador to the court of St. Petersburg.

YEATS, W. B. *Mythologies*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 369 pp. \$5. This was the title W. B. Yeats himself gave to this collection of Irish stories of the supernatural and uncanny, based on country beliefs, traditions, and folk tales. This book will be essential for all those readers of Yeats' poetry and plays; it reveals that he could work unique enchantment in prose as well as poetry and it further illuminates his extraordinary visionary gifts.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

ALEXANDER, W. M. *Are You a Good Teacher?* New York 16: Rinehart and Company, 232 Madison Avenue. 1959. 64 pp. \$1. Guide lines for good teaching.

BATCHELDER, H. T. *Report of a State-Wide Study of the Public Schools and Teacher Education in Indiana*. Bloomington, Indiana: University of Indiana Bookstore. 1959. 88 pp. \$1. Provides factual data as a means of answering criticism of the public school.

BRICKMAN, WILLIAM, editor. *Comparative Education*. New York: Payne Educational Sociology Foundation, Inc. 1959. 48 pp. \$1. Papers presented at the Third Annual Conference on Comparative Education at New York University.

BRODINSKY, B. P. *Report on American Education, 1959*. New London, Connecticut: Arthur C. Croft. 1959. 14 pp. \$1. Emphasis is placed on the elementary and secondary school—how it has grown stronger and more important decade after decade.

CANSON, ALAN. *Annual Report of Financial Transactions Concerning School Districts in California*. Sacramento: Office of California State Controller. 1959. 331 pp. A panoramic picture of the financial transactions of California school districts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1958—1462 elementary school districts, 232 high-school districts, 27 college districts, and 98 unified districts or 1819 school districts.

CATER, DOUGLASS. *World Progress Through Educational Exchange*. New York 21: Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street. 1959. 40 pp. A report of the Third National Conference on exchange of persons which was held in Washington, D. C., January 28-30, 1959.

Closed-Circuit Television. Hagerstown, Maryland: The Board of Education. 1959. 56 pp. Describes experimental programs conducted in Washington County, Maryland, during the past 30 months.

COMMITTEE ON TAX EDUCATION AND SCHOOL FINANCE. *Action In State Equalization: Case Studies*. Washington 6, D. C.: National

Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 48 pp. 50¢. A case-study approach to further understanding of the state's role in the equalization of property assessments.

_____. *Problems and Opportunities In Financing Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 160 pp. 75¢. Proceedings of the Second National Conference on School Finance Problems held April 30 to May 1, 1959, in the La Salle Hotel, Chicago. Includes important papers and addresses at this conference. Areas covered are Looking Ahead, Federal Responsibility for the Support of Education, Types of State School Plans, Persistent Issues in State and Local School Support, Conference Evaluation, and Conference Program and Participants.

COMMITTEE ON UTILIZATION OF COLLEGE TEACHING RESOURCES. *Better Utilization of College Teaching Resources*. New York 22: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 477 Madison Avenue. 1959. 62 pp. Describes some experiments conducted by many colleges and universities to meet the growing acute problem of the shortage of capable teachers for increasing student population.

Community In Action. New York: Board of Education. 1959. 32 pp. A report on a social integration project in school districts 12, 13, and 14 in Manhattan from 1951-1958.

Counseling Services In the Secondary Schools of Illinois. Urbana, Illinois: Allerton House Conference on Education, 204 Gregory Hall, University of Illinois. 1959. 48 pp. The results of a three-year intensive study by the members of the study group on the role of the counselor.

DUGAN, W. E., editor. *Counseling Points of View*. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota. 1959. 56 pp. \$1.50. Proceedings of the Minnesota Counselors Association Midwinter Conference in 1958.

Economic Status of Teachers in 1958-59. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 36 pp. 50¢. Part of this summary of salary trends gives comparisons of the earnings of teachers with other professions—doctors, lawyers, chemists, engineers. Current figures on the earnings of these groups show the financial advantage that college trained persons have in professions other than teaching.

Editors and Writers Conference on Testing. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service. 1959. 80 pp. A report on the Editors and Writers Conference on Testing held at the Nassau Tavern, Princeton, New Jersey, on May 13 and 14, 1958, sponsored by the Educational Testing Service.

Facts About Code-Approved Comics Magazines. New York 10: Comics Magazine Association of America, Inc., 300 Park Avenue South. 1959. 32 pp. Contains a description of how the Code Authority operates, a brief background of the comics magazine industry and of the CMAA, an analysis of the contents of Code-approved comics, their educational as well as entertainment values, documentary material on the efficacy and public approval of the self-regulation program, and the complete text of the Code.

First Jobs of College Women. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1959. 52 pp. 35¢. This survey, describing the job experiences of recent women graduates in the world of work, is directed toward a major objective: To help college women select courses of study which are compatible with their abilities and interests as well as with future employment opportunities.

Fit for College. Washington 6, D. C.: National Educational Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 24 pp. 50¢. Covers six main topics: (1) Fitness—What Is It? (2) How Does One Know When He Is Fit? (3) How Is Fitness Attained and Kept? (4) What Should Be Expected from College Physical Education? (5) Fitness After College Days, and (6) A Challenge. The book attempts to paint for college students a picture about the meaning and importance of fitness and how it can be developed and maintained.

Fitness of Connecticut Youth. Danbury: Danbury State Teachers College. 1959. 68 pp. 50¢. Summary of findings of the State Fitness Study conducted by the Connecticut Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation from 1957-1959.

FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. *Learning More About Learning.* Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 96 pp. \$1. Contains papers and reports from the Third ASCD Research Institute.

General Education for Teachers. New York 22: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 477 Madison Avenue. 1959. 168 pp. Report of a post-baccalaureate program leading to a master of science in education degree. Pilot Study I of an experimental program in teacher education.

Growth of Public Education in Pittsburgh. Pittsburgh: Board of Education. 1959. 116 pp. This book has been prepared not only to present a complete history of the growth of public education in Pittsburgh, but also to acquaint the teachers, staff members, and friends with the historical background of the schools in the hope that they may know and feel the impact of partnership in a bicentennial celebration.

HARRIS, L. A. *Literature—Grades 7 to 12.* Paramount, California: Paramount Unified School District. 1959. 138 pp. Curriculum guide for the teaching of literature—grades 7 to 12.

HILL, S. E., and FREDERICK HARBISON. *Manpower and Innovation in American Industry.* Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University, Department of Economics and Sociology. 1959. 93 pp. \$2. Presents empirical data drawn from experiences of fifty U. S. companies.

HORKHEIMER, M. F., and J. W. DIFFOR. *Educators Guide to Free Filmstrips.* Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1959. 191 pp. \$7. This eleventh annual guide is completely revised. The guide has come a long way in eleven years from that first 1949 edition which required but 114 pages to a document of 385 free filmstrips and 3 free sets of slides, to this current 191-page edition, much of it in small type-face, listing 649 filmstrips (334 sound, 315 silent) and 94 sets of slides—a total of 743 titles available from 106 sources.

Judging Schools With Wisdom. Evanston, Illinois: National School Boards Association, 1940 Sheridan Road. 1959. 12 pp. 50¢. Sets forth criteria of excellence which should undergird any intelligent and critical appraisal of the public schools.

KRUG, E. A.; C. S. LIDDLE; R. C. MOSELY; and D. S. PARKINSON. *The College-Preparatory Function in Wisconsin High Schools.* Madison 6, Wisconsin: Instructional Materials Center, 105 Education Building. 1959. 84 pp. \$1.50. Reports the results of an inquiry concerning the college-preparatory function in Wisconsin high schools.

LAMERS, W. M. *Disaster Protection Handbook for School Administrators*. Washington, D. C.: The American Association of School Administrators. 1959. 40 pp. Contains plans and suggestions for local school officials.

MAY, STACY, and GALO PLAZA. *United States Business Performance Abroad*. Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1606 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W. 1959. 178 pp. \$2, paper bound; \$4.50, cloth bound. A case study of the United Fruit Company in Latin America.

MORSE, J. F. *An Aid to Administrators of National Defense Student Loans*. New York 27: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street. 1959. 42 pp. Contains suggestions as an aid in minimizing mistakes that are inevitable in the launching of any new program.

MYRES, JOHN. *Mechanics of English—Grades 7 to 12*. Paramount, California: Paramount Unified School District. 1959. 162 pp. Curriculum guide for the teaching of English—grades 7 to 12.

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR THE DEFENSE OF DEMOCRACY THROUGH EDUCATION. *NEA Defense Commission Handbook*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 48 pp. 25¢. A guide for leaders in state and local education associations.

National Policy and the Financing of the Public Schools. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 30 pp. 35¢. Reviews the importance of education to the national life, assesses the financial base upon which American public schools are presently operated, and discusses the implications of these matters for national policy.

Our Public Schools. New York: Board of Education. 1959. 40 pp. The annual report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1956-57, on the education of the deaf.

PHYSICAL SCIENCE STUDY COMMITTEE. *Physics—Volume 3*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Science Foundation. 1959. 136 pp. Volume 3 of a physics textbook in the making. Contains units on Newton's Law of Motion; Motion at the Earth's Surface; Universal Gravitation on the Solar System; Momentum and the Conservation of Momentum; Work and Kinetic Energy; Potential Energy; and Heat, Molecular Motion, and the Conservation of Energy.

_____. *Physics—Volume 4*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Science Foundation. 1959. 82 pp. The first three chapters of the preliminary edition of Volume 4. These chapters are: Some Qualitative Facts About Electricity; Coulomb's Law and the Elementary Electric Charge; and Energy and Motion of Charges in Electric Fields.

Proceedings of Conference on Educational Television. Washington 25, D. C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. 1959. 96 pp. A report of a conference held in the Office of Education in cooperation with the National Association of Educational Broadcasters covering the discussions and evaluations of representatives from 58 national organizations concerned with the application of the TV means of communication in all areas of education.

Programs of Graduate Education for Teachers. Washington 6, D. C.: Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1959. 20 pp. Papers presented at the Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education also includes the report approved by the delegates.

RESEARCH AND POLICY COMMITTEE OF THE COMMITTEE FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT. *The European Common Market and Its Meaning to the United States*. This is the 47th statement issued by the Research and Policy Committee of CED in its program for the study of policies to contribute to "high and secure standards of living in the domestic economy."

Research Studies Related in the Improvement of Education in Thailand. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Bookstore. 1959. 72 pp. \$1. A report on what has been accomplished under the supervision of the Division of Research of the Prasarn Mittr College of Education in Bangkok, Thailand.

RUDOLF, STEFAN. *The Modern Slide Rule*. New York 55: The William-Frederick Press, 391 East 149th Street. 1959. 70 pp. \$5. Simplified rules for fundamental slide-rule operations.

SCHLOSS, SAMUEL, and E. M. FOSTER. *Statistics of State School Systems: 1955-56, Organization, Staff, Pupils, and Finances*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1959. 152 pp. 45¢. This is Chapter 2 of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States-1954-56*. It illustrates how a decentralized national school system, administered by over 50,000 local school districts cooperates voluntarily with the Federal government in the collection of national statistics. The chapter presents data chiefly for full-time elementary and secondary schools, with some data for junior colleges, summer schools, and adult education as well as for nonpublic schools.

School Salaries, 1958-59, Urban Districts 5000 to 10,000 in Population. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 68 pp. 50¢. This report is the sixth release in the Research Division's nineteenth biennial survey of urban school district salaries. It presents information for the school year 1958-59.

SMITH, L. J. *Career Planning*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, 49 E. 33rd Street. 1959. 271 pp. \$3.50. This book is the result of experience in group career planning and individual career counseling. It contains the various phases of the subject which are important both to those seeking guidance in selecting a career and to the teacher interested with the responsibility of counseling.

STODDARD, JANE, and MRS. B. E. GORE, compilers. *Home and Hospital Instruction in California*. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education. 1959. 88 pp. Discusses the administration of the program; the instruction program; guidance services; and role of the teacher. Bibliography.

SPIEGLER, CHARLES, and MARTIN HAMBURGER. *If You're Not Going To College*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 57 West Grand Avenue. 1959. 84 pp. \$1.60. This brochure aims to inform students what careers are open to them without college training. Also accompanied by a 20-page counselor's and teacher's manual.

Spotlight on the College Student. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N. W. 1959. 98 pp. A report of discussions of the Problems and Policies Committee led by David Riesman, Philip E. Jacob, and Nevitt Sanford.

STEPHENSON, MARGARET, and RUTH MILLETT. *Good Manners: The Magic Key*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight. 1959. 72 pp. 80¢. This book is designed to teach good manners to boys and girls of high-school age. It helps them learn to behave at home, in public, and at school. This book is not just a list of rules to be followed. It explains why doing and saying the right thing at the right time can be "the magic key," as it helps

young people develop the kind of manners that happy, thoughtful people have. It covers getting along at school; in public places; looking your best; good conversational manners; dating; introductions; party time; letter writing; around the campfire; smoothing the way with adults; and getting along at home. A test is included at the back for self-evaluation.

STICKLE, R. S. *English Classroom Design and Equipment*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 704 S. Sixth Street. 1959. 28 pp. A report based on a questionnaire sponsored by the Illinois Association of Teachers of English.

A Summary of the Report of the Commission on Mathematics. New York 27: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street. 1959. 12 pp. A suggested program for college preparatory mathematics.

The Teacher's Day in Court: Review of 1958. Washington 6, D. C.: Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1959. 48 pp. 25¢. A digest of reported judicial opinions rendered in state and Federal courts during 1958.

Teaching by Television. New York 22: Ford Foundation, Office of Reports, 477 Madison Avenue. 1959. 91 pp. Free. Descriptions of experiments involving the use of television as a basic part of the daily instruction. The experiments described in the report involve more than 25 colleges and universities, 100 school systems, and more than 100,000 students and their teachers in grades one through twelve and on the college level.

Why Should You Study Physics in High School? New York 17: American Institute of Physics, 335 East 45th Street. 1959. 12 pp. This booklet encourages school pupils in the eighth and ninth grades to plan to study physics— and mathematics—in high school.

WITTICH, W. A., compiler and editor. *Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts, and Transcriptions*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1959. 244 pp. \$5.75. This fifth edition is completely revised. Of the 503 listings, 98 are new listings. The number of sources providing these teaching aids has nearly tripled since the first edition. These two facts bring into sharp relief the pressing demand for, and the tempo in the development of, these relatively newer types of educational materials.

This guide lists 80 free tapes, 306 free scripts, and 117 free transcriptions, a total of 503 free audio aids and scripts. It, so far as information is available. (1) list and classifies available tapes, scripts, and transcriptions; (2) describes nature and content of each; (3) indicates running time of each; (4) includes dates of release; (5) provides name and distributor of each free tape, script, and transcription; (6) tells all terms and conditions of loan or use of each; (7) identifies each section by color of paper, for fingertip reference; (8) offers specific suggestions for use of each type of material; and (9) gathers all this pertinent information into one convenient book.

WOMER, F. B. *Testing Programs in Michigan Schools*. Ann Arbor: The Bureau of School Services, 3501 Administration Building, The University of Michigan. 1959. 70 pp. Free. A review of testing programs in the Michigan schools, including a discussion of schools participating; developing programs; of tests used; of the personnel who administer the tests and who interpret them; of interpreting the tests and using them in schools; of financing the program; and of using the GED diplomas in Michigan schools.

WRIGHT, G. S. *High School Curriculum Organization Patterns and Graduation Requirements in Fifty Large Cities*. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. 1959. 30 pp. Shows curriculum patterns and graduation requirements in fifty large cities.

Your Exciting Career as a Secretary! Washington 9, D. C.: National Association and Council of Business Schools, Suite 407, 2400 Sixteenth Street. 1959. 20 pp. Discusses careers for a secretary.

Youth Conservation Corps. Washington 25, D. C.: Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. 1959. 548 pp. A report of the hearings before the Subcommittee on the Youth Conservation Corps of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate (May 11, 12, 19, 22 and 25, 1959), Eighty-Sixth Congress, bill Number S.812—a bill to establish a Youth Conservation Corps.

News Notes

A NEW BIOLOGY COURSE

The American Institute of Biological Sciences, 2000 P Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., has announced a unique collaboration of the nation's leading biologists to produce a secondary-school biology course that makes integrated use of more than 120 half-hour film lecture-demonstrations, classroom teaching, and printed materials for students and teachers. More than 100 biologists from both research and teaching posts in secondary schools and colleges are now preparing the course, which is expected to be ready for use in the fall of 1960. Funds to support preparation of the project have been made available by the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation.

100TH ANNIVERSARY

The 100th anniversary of the birth of Jane Addams, September 6, 1960, is an occasion to use the memory of her great accomplishments as an inspiration to public service. It is especially fitting that young people during 1960 should study her life and learn from her example since she devoted so much of her time to working with them. Hull House in Chicago, the first settlement house in the United States, was opened by Jane Addams in 1889 and immediately established a kindergarten and a number of children's clubs. The first playground in Chicago was under Hull House auspices.

The first child labor laws in Illinois were passed as a result of investigations by Jane Addams and her co-workers of sweat shops employing children as much as 14 hours a day. The first juvenile court and mothers pension laws in the world also came from their efforts.

Jane Addams worked hard for women's suffrage in the United States because she thought women would be a strong force for world peace which was another of her life-time concerns. For information, write to Jane Addams Centennial, Mrs. Carmelita Hinton, Chairman, Jane Addams House, 2006 Walnut Street, Philadelphia 3, Pennsylvania.

AIDS FOR RUSSIAN STUDIES

Many high schools throughout the nation have included instruction in the field of Russian studies in their social studies and foreign language departments. Educational Services, 1730 Eye Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., is serving as the information center for the Institute for the Study of the USSR. Available from this center is a 64-page booklet entitled *Institute Publications*. This booklet contains a complete list of Institute publications and a breakdown of contents by subject. The Institute also publishes a monthly magazine entitled *Bulletin*. Its purpose is to present to the free world an analysis of contemporary events and studies of Soviet history and culture by persons who know the system intimately but are not Communist Party members or sympathizers. For complete information concerning source materials and prices, write to Educational Services at the above address.

HIGH SCHOOL INSTALLS LANGUAGE LABORATORY

When the students of Conestoga High School (Paoli Area High School, 90 Harwellville Road, Berwyn, Pennsylvania) returned to school this fall, their schedules, in addition to the regular classes in the study of modern foreign language, included assignment at least twice a week to a language laboratory. This new electronic tool will give each student his own private tutor in classes up to 35. More than a year of study and planning has culminated in approval for the installation of this language laboratory. The Paoli Area School Board has approved a contract with Magnetic Recording Industries of New York who, during the summer, installed a 35-position laboratory in the new wing recently completed at Conestoga High School. Student will study three years of French, German, or Spanish, using the direct conversational approach in the formal classroom program and supplemented by instruction in the laboratory. The language laboratory is an electronic system composed of a classroom divided into small rooms or booths. Each student is assigned to one of these booths. Each booth is equipped with a private line to the teacher. He hears the teacher only from a lesson on tape and exclusively on his headphones just as if the teacher were a private tutor. He also hears himself as he repeats the phrase or answers a question. Therefore, the student can participate all of the time instead of once in a while in a language discussion or recitation. Theoretically, by this method there is no longer a limit to mass teaching. Through the privacy of the headphones, the student is always personally engaged in the learning program no matter how many students are actually in the room. Furthermore, since the teacher can put the lesson on tape, the teacher now becomes a dual personality available also to check individual progress by the simple expedient of plugging in on the line of any student in the class.

Conestoga Senior High School will be a pioneer in the use of the laboratory among Suburban Philadelphia and Pennsylvania high schools. Because of the importance and urgency attached to the teaching of modern foreign languages, the state of Pennsylvania was recently given a special grant under the National Defense Education Act to establish 50 school language laboratories.

Dr. B. Anton Hess, Director of Secondary Education, reports that Miss Mary Joanna Basehore, Chairman of the Foreign Language Committee of the secondary-school system, attended Middlebury College in Connecticut to get special training in laboratory techniques. In addition, a workshop was held

for all foreign language teachers at the opening of the school term to train these teachers in the use of these facilities. These facilities also make it possible to teach some foreign languages not normally found in the high-school language program, and not normally elected by all students. These can now be taught on an individual or a small group basis through the medium of the electronic device since four different language lessons can be conducted simultaneously for small groups in the laboratory. Such languages as may be available could include the Russian, Central European, Scandinavian, Japanese, and Chinese languages.

A PIONEER PROGRAM FOR GIFTED PUPILS

San Diego has one of the nation's pioneer programs for gifted pupils—that small group, two per cent or less at the extreme top of the mental ability scale. Development of the program began ten years ago as a result of the discovery that a small percentage of pupils might have special programs because of their unusual mental abilities.

Psychologists now help to identify all gifted pupils and give special help to those with adjustment problems. When any child is identified as gifted, parents are consulted and a program designed to offer a stepped-up challenge to the pupil's ability begins to operate. Elementary-school gifted pupils are given enriched study opportunities. Many elect to attend one of 14 instructional study centers where there are concentrations of enrichment materials. Some are advanced a year in grade, after careful study. Three full-time teacher consultants help teachers who have gifted pupils in their classes.

High-school gifted pupils receive special attention from the gifted program advisers, counselors, and teachers in their school. Many take eleventh-grade "advanced" and twelfth-grade Honors courses. Nearly all prepare for college. Many are helped to win college scholarships. Gifted pupils with continuing adjustment problems receive counseling from guidance department specialists. Those in elementary school may be moved to an adjustment room for gifted. Many receive special help from the Pupil Study Center clinic in the Education Center.

UNIQUE SUMMER SCHOOL

Last summer for the first time, West Hartford (Connecticut) had a summer school unlike the conventional summer session in which students usually study to make up work not done well during the regular school term. The West Hartford summer school was organized primarily for the student who wanted to do something above and beyond what he could do during the regular school year. Most of the courses were aimed at the student with an inquiring mind who wished to enlarge and enrich his educational background. The courses did not duplicate, but rather supplemented the secondary schools' college preparatory curriculum. In some cases, students were able to investigate areas of study which were not part of the regular curriculum; in others, they delved more deeply into an important avenue of interest than was formerly possible.

SHORTAGE OF MATERIALS IN SCHOOLS

The American Textbook Publishers Institute, reports that the sales of educational books reached an all-time high in 1958 because of large enrollments, but failed to make up a severe shortage in the nation's schools. The annual survey of the textbook publishing industry in the United States showed an

11% increase over the previous year, resulting in total sales for all educational publishers of \$298,280,000. Purchases of textbooks, workbooks, and related materials by public schools, private schools, and students were up 8% to \$124,000,000 in the elementary grades, 15% to \$70,900,000 for high schools, and 11% to \$85,100,000 at the college level. Standardized tests were up 18% to \$9,730,000, while school and library sales of encyclopedias and other reference books were up 6% to \$8,550,000. Dr. Austin J. McCaffrey, Executive Secretary of the Institute states that schools in the United States were more than \$750 million short of the recommended level of textbook supply. Basing this statement on standards developed by research and applied to a four-year schedule for replacement of worn out or obsolete books, he said that only \$118 million worth of books were purchased to meet a need of \$604 million for the first eight grades. Only \$67 million worth of high-school textbooks were purchased to meet a need of \$353 million. The resulting shortages were estimated at \$486 million of elementary textbooks and \$286 million of high-school textbooks.

The Institute estimates that sales in 1958 were enough to provide the equivalent of 2.05 regular hardbound textbooks for each elementary pupil and 2.46 for each high-school student. Actually it would be fewer because part of the amount is represented by one or two workbooks and miscellaneous materials for each student. Sales to college students were estimated to represent 5.66 hardbound textbooks per student.

TEACHER EXCHANGE PROPOSED

Deephaven Junior High School, Excelsior, Minnesota, has proposed a teacher exchange program with the Phoenix, Arizona, System schools. Under the arrangement as now contemplated, one teacher from the Excelsior school would exchange duties with one of Phoenix's teachers for a period to be negotiated—from four to nine weeks. No changes would be made during the first or last months of a school year.

AIDS TO SAFETY EDUCATION

In an additional effort to help rid the nation's highways of irresponsible motorists and to aid safety education programs, the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies has just published two informative pamphlets—*The Drinking Driver*, *Traffic Safety Delinquent No. 1*, re-emphasizing the need to correct the evil of motorists who drive under the influence of alcohol, and *Your Youth Traffic Safety Conference*, designed to serve as a guide for conferences in which young drivers from various schools and communities get together to identify common traffic accident problems and endeavor to provide solutions for these problems. The two-color pamphlets are a part of the continuing accident prevention services provided by the association in behalf of its member companies. Copies of the pamphlet, in reasonable quantity, are available without cost from the Accident Prevention Department, Association of Casualty and Surety Companies, 60 John Street, New York 38, N. Y.

'CITY GOVERNMENT' SCHOOL BOOK

A unique 75-page booklet on *Philadelphia City Government* has been published by the curriculum office for use by pupils in eighth-grade classes as a section of the social studies course in Pennsylvania and American history and government. It is being distributed to the Philadelphia schools. The booklet is

filled with accurate and hard-to-find materials on all phases of the government here, from the forming and functioning of political parties, through the election, filling the offices of the various branches of government, and the powers and duties of those offices. These also are sections concerning City Council, the courts, Mayor's Office for Information and Complaints, city taxes, and a history of the city charter. —*School News and Views*, Philadelphia (Pennsylvania) Public Schools.

JOHN HAY FELLOWSHIPS FOR 1960-61

Public secondary-school teachers in seventeen states and the District of Columbia are invited to apply for John Hay Fellowships for a year of study in the humanities at one of six universities: California, Chicago, Columbia, Harvard, Northwestern, and Yale. Stipends are equivalent to the teacher's salary for the year of fellowship and provide tuition and round-trip transportation. Participating states for 1960-61 are: Arizona, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Utah, Virginia, and Washington, as well as the District of Columbia. Approximately 80 grants will be made for 1960-61.

The John Hay Fellows Program is designed to help outstanding teachers broaden their intellectual horizons through study and reflection. Fellows return with greater resources for helping their school systems to carry out imaginative and creative programs for both teachers and students.

To be eligible to candidacy, a man or woman must (1) hold a minimum of a bachelor's degree from an accredited college or university; (2) have at least five years of high-school teaching experience, the most recent two of which shall have been in the present employing system; (3) be not over fifty years of age at the time application is made; (4) be a permanent instructor whose major responsibility is classroom teaching at the high-school level; (5) be employed in a school or school system which is not only academically sound, but which has also shown its interest in effective use of unusually good teachers; (6) be nominated by the employing superintendent of schools or other authorized nominating official.

Although subjects such as foreign languages, literature, history, music, and the fine arts are usually considered the humanities, nominations of teachers in other areas—especially the social and natural sciences—will be accepted. Information and application blanks for 1960-61 Fellowships may be secured by writing to Dr. Charles R. Keller, Director, John Hay Fellows Program, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, New York. Applications close on December 1, 1959.

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS, 1959-60

The Nation's school and college enrollment, increasing for the 15th consecutive year, will reach an all-time high of 46,480,000 in the school year 1959-60, according to a report by Commissioner of Education, Lawrence G. Derthick. This is an increase of 1,940,000 over the 44,540,000 enrollment for the 1958-59 school year.

Commissioner Derthick estimates that a total of 1,563,000 teachers will be needed in both public and nonpublic schools during this year, whereas the number presently qualified is 1,368,000. Making up this total supply are

1,248,000 teachers expected to continue in service; 97,000 newly trained teachers; and 23,000 teachers formerly employed with substandard credentials, but now fully trained and certified. A part of this shortage will be met by former instructors returning to service, but the number cannot be determined. The deficit of teachers will mean, in many communities, over-large classes or the employment of teachers without adequate training, or both. In many instances, it will also mean curtailing the number of subjects offered. Last year, elementary and secondary schools were 182,000 teachers short of the total need. Intensifying the scarce supply of teachers, Commissioner Derthick reports that teacher-turnover rate is 10.9 per cent which represents the proportion of teachers who leave the profession each year. Studies in progress confirm this rate as being more accurate than the 7.5 per cent formerly utilized in calculating teacher shortages.

The Commissioner points out that one out of every four persons in the United States is now attending school, from kindergarten through college. Last October, 89.2 per cent of boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age were enrolled in secondary schools and colleges. Ten years ago, 81.8 per cent were enrolled. Swelling enrollments and their attendant problems are likely to continue for many years. Four years from now, the school-age population—pupils 5 through 17 years of age—will probably go as high as 48.8 million or 13 per cent more than at present. Estimates for total enrollment during the school year follows:

GRADE LEVEL AND TYPE OF SCHOOL		1959-60	1958-59
<i>Kindergarten through Grade 8:</i>			
Public school system (regular full-time)	27,890,000	26,780,000	
Nonpublic schools (regular full-time)	5,400,000	5,060,000	
Other schools ¹	170,000	170,000	
Total, Kindergarten through Grade 8	33,460,000	32,010,000	
<i>Grades 9 through 12:</i>			
Public school system (regular full-time)	8,100,000	7,840,000	
Nonpublic schools (regular full-time)	1,050,000	1,010,000	
Other schools ¹	90,000	90,000	
Total, Grades 9 through 12	9,240,000	8,940,000	
<i>Kindergarten through Grade 12:</i>			
Public school system (regular full-time)	35,990,000	34,620,000	
Nonpublic schools (regular full-time)	6,450,000	6,070,000	
Other schools ¹	260,000	260,000	
Total, Kindergarten through Grade 12	42,700,000	40,950,000	
<i>Higher Education:</i>			
Universities, colleges, professional schools, junior colleges, normal schools, and teachers colleges (degree-credit enrollment)	3,780,000	3,590,000	
Total, elementary, secondary, and higher education	46,480,000	44,540,000	

¹Includes Federal schools for Indians, Federally-operated elementary-secondary schools on posts, model and practice schools in teacher training institutions, subcollegiate departments of colleges, and residential schools for exceptional children.

TULSA, OKLAHOMA, ANALYZES ITS HIGH SCHOOLS

Tulsa has prepared a publication, entitled *Your Tulsa High Schools Today*, that is being used with various study groups in the city. The 32-page booklet is a comparative analysis of Tulsa's senior high schools and the comprehensive high school discussed by Dr. James B. Conant in his recent book, *The American High School Today*.

Writing in the foreword to the publication, Dr. Charles C. Mason, superintendent, says: "Your Tulsa senior high schools have, since their inception, been comprehensive high schools. While we do not accept Dr. Conant's report as being the blue print for secondary education, his lifetime of study and service in the field of education make his views and recommendations worthy of serious consideration." The booklet lists Dr. Conant's 21 recommendations for a comprehensive high school. Following each recommendation is a description of what the Tulsa high schools do correspondingly.

STUDENTS WILL TAKE ADVANCED PLACEMENT EXAMS IN OWN SCHOOLS

Beginning next May, the Advanced Placement Examinations of the College Board will be offered at secondary schools which request that their candidates be tested. ETS will no longer operate testing centers for this program.

Schools which expect to have candidates will designate a staff member to be responsible for handling registrations, collecting fees, and administering the tests. The testing date for each examination will be set by the College Board, but individual schools will be permitted some leeway in determining the starting time of the examinations. Once the tests have been administered and returned to ETS, there will be no change in the reading, scoring, or score reporting aspects of the program.

Approximately 6,000 candidates—nearly twice as many as last year—took the Advanced Placement Examinations in 11 subjects on May 11-15, 1959. Most of the students who demonstrate satisfactory achievement on these exams will receive college credit or they will be permitted to register for advanced courses. Some will receive both advanced placement and college credit. All decisions regarding credit or placement rest with the college, which takes into account the nature of the special courses which the student has had, his performance in the course, his school's recommendation regarding advanced placement, as well as his advanced placement scores.—*ETS Developments*, June 1959.

HELPING THE GIFTED

Ways in which exceptionally bright children may be helped to make the most of their intellectual capabilities was discussed at a University of Illinois conference July 13-17 on campus. The "Institute on Program Planning for the Gifted" also included visits to demonstration classes for superior students at University High School. Discussion topics included "Defining and Locating the Gifted," "Administrative and Organizational Problems," "Specific Illustrative Programs," "Implementation of Programs," and special interest group meetings. The Institute was presented by the University of Illinois Division of University Extension, Division of Exceptional Children, and College of Education. Cooperating were the Illinois Elementary-School Principals' Association; Illinois Junior High-School Principals' Association; Illinois Secondary-School Principals' Association, and Illinois Association of School Administrators.

NATIONAL AWARDS TO TV AND RADIO STATIONS FOR SERVING YOUTH IN 1959

Nominations are now open for the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation National Station Awards for Serving Youth in 1959. The Edison Foundation will give Awards to the television station and the radio station that best served youth. Each of these awards will be a scroll honoring the winning television or radio station, and an Edison Foundation Scholarship of \$1,000 to be used toward college education. Under the terms of the prize, each station will award this scholarship to a high-school senior in the community who has been selected by an appropriate committee of local school officials. Thus the stations receiving the awards gain national recognition and pass the benefit to the communities they serve. Local groups nominate the radio and television stations in their community that are best serving American youth. Each nomination should be accompanied by a statement of 1,000 words describing the achievements of the particular radio or television station chosen as best serving youth in the local community. Nominations should include information on specific programs which qualify the station for the award; the number of hours each week devoted to programming for youth; and the usefulness of these programs to different age levels.

The Edison Foundation Committee on Station Awards will review the recommendations and secure additional information about the nominated stations. This committee is composed of trustees of the Foundation. Nominations should be sent by November 1, 1959, to the Committee on Station Awards, Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, 8 West 40th Street, New York 18, N. Y.

HOME ECONOMICS FELLOWSHIP

Book publisher Prentice-Hall has announced the creation of an annual \$500 fellowship in the field of home economics education to be administered by the American Home Economics Association. The first fellowship will be awarded for the 1960-61 school year. It will go to a college senior, home economics teacher, or other qualified college graduate desiring to take graduate work in home economics education. Application forms for the fellowship may be obtained from the American Home Economics Association, 1600 Twentieth Street, N. W., Washington 9, D. C. on October 1, 1959 or thereafter. These should be submitted to the chairman of the Association's awards committee before February 9, 1960. The award will be made no later than April 1, 1960.

A TEACHER PLACEMENT BUREAU

The American Association of Teachers of German is anxious to bring to the attention of superintendents and principals around the country the availability of the services of a Teacher Placement Bureau. This is a small agency, supported by the national organization and staffed on a volunteer basis. This Teacher Placement Bureau handles teaching positions in German at both secondary and college level. The service is available without charge to institutions seeking to fill vacancies. Dossiers are submitted confidentially; i.e. without notification of the applicant. Interested institutions then communicate directly with the applicant.

CHEMISTRY BY TV

Modern Chemistry is the subject for the 1959-60 NBC-TV season, with Dr. John F. Baxter, Professor of Chemistry, University of Florida, as the national teacher. The programs are telecast Monday through Friday, 6:30-7 A.M. local time throughout the country. The program format will consist of 80 TV lecture demonstrations in color and black and white each semester, 160 lessons in all. Dr. Baxter will serve as the over-all teacher and there will be frequent guest lecturers, including Nobel Prize winners in chemistry. Course outlines, synopses, syllabi, and assignments are available from the following address: National Coordinator for Continental Classroom, National Broadcasting Company, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

ATOMIC AGE PHYSICS COURSE TO BE REPEATED

The entire course in Atomic Age Physics conducted by Dr. Harvey E. White is being repeated in the 1959-60 season at 6-6:30 A.M. on the NBC-TV network. A recent survey shows that 3,000 teachers enrolled in the 250 colleges which extended credit for the course. Of the teachers interviewed, more than 80% report that, as a result of their studies, they plan to introduce new and better demonstration techniques to their classes this year. More than 50% indicate that they intend to introduce new concepts in physics to their classes and 97.4% regard the lessons in Atomic Age Physics of inestimable value. The survey shows that the main objective of the Continental Classroom project was achieved—improvement in teaching methods in high-school science courses. But, in addition to those persons who enrolled for credit about 15,000 teachers followed the course regularly over one of the 150 stations carrying the telecasts. A general audience, in addition to the science teachers had been expected; but the survey's results show that the course attracted an audience of approximately 400,000 viewers, people of all ages and all interests and occupations. There were high-school students who watched at home or joined early morning classes at their schools. There were engineers, men in the armed services, persons who wished to brush up on what they had learned in college, and men and women who wanted an understanding of the newer concepts in science.

13TH AND 14TH GRADES TOO?

A fifty-seven per cent yes was voted by school administrators polled by *The Nation's Schools* when asked if they favored adding the 13th and 14th grades to local public school systems. The opinion poll which appears in the June 1959 issue of *The Nation's Schools* shows that 82% of the administrators felt that, if these two grades were added, the public school systems should receive additional aid from the state for building expenses and 87% felt aid should be given for operating costs.

LOW EDUCATION BUDGET SEEN AS MENACE

Our \$10 billion expenditure for the nation's public schools falls \$8 billion short of what is required for a good educational program. The Educational Policies Commission, in earlier studies, had developed a formula for estimating the minimum cost of operating good schools. This formula holds that the minimum annual per-pupil expenditure for good schools is about 12 per cent of the salary which must be paid to a qualified beginning teacher. It is through

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the application of that formula that the Commission arrived at its estimate that current public school spending is about \$8 billion a year short of meeting the need. Current expenditures for the public schools, the Commission found, are 2.4 per cent of this year's total Gross National Product. An increase of about 1.7 per cent would supply the needed \$8 billion and wipe out the deficit, the Commission notes. This is the conclusion of a report by the Educational Policies Commission, a joint undertaking of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, headed by Virgil M. Hancher, president of the State University of Iowa.

The report, released at the 1959 NEA convention, is titled *National Policy and the Financing of the Public Schools*. It calls for a "massive" addition of funds for public education, with a "significant" share of that increase to be provided by the Federal government. On the issue of whether Federal money threatens local control of the schools, the report has this to say: "Initiative and control imply freedom of choice. But lack of money limits that freedom in most American school systems today. Too often the schools must choose not the best alternatives, but the cheapest."

"The prosperity, security, and very survival of the nation," the report says, "are staked, in the long run, on the public schools. These are national tasks; their accomplishment, a national affair. Yet alone of all the vital concerns, education is not recognized as an obligation in which the national government must carry a significant share."

The Commission's estimate of the current deficit in school spending is based on actual spending in the 1958-59 year. It takes no account of mounting school enrollments which promise additional burdens in the years ahead, or of current shortages of school facilities and classrooms.

"ACCREDITED SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES"

The National Education Association frequently receives requests for information on the academic rank of individual schools and colleges. It has prepared a memorandum discussing briefly the problem of "rating" and listing the chief sources of information on individual institutions. One copy of this complete NEA Research Memo entitled "Accredited Schools and Colleges" (April 1959) can be secured free upon request to the NEA Research Division, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. One copy of another memo on "Corporal Punishment" can also be obtained from the same source.

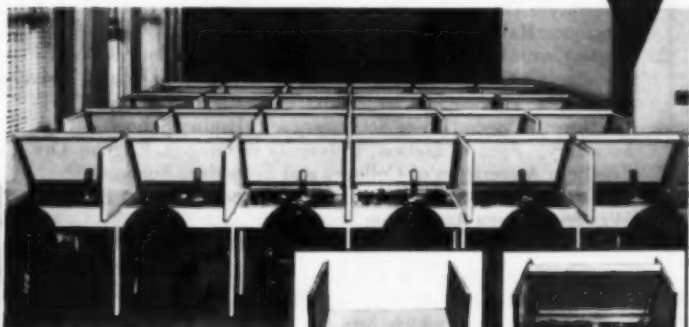
This memo states that there is no official ranking of schools or colleges, nor is there any generally accepted system of rating these institutions. However, to make it easier for students to transfer from school to college and from college to college, voluntary associations or institutions have been formed to guide and control the conditions under which various educational efforts may be carried out by "accrediting" or "approving" individual schools and colleges. The Office of Education (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare) and the National Education Association DO NOT accredit or approve any educational institutions.

Each of the six regional accrediting associations issues a list of accredited colleges and universities. These associations are:

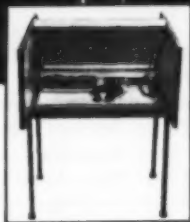
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5. Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
Secretary: Albert J. Geiger, 316 Peachtree Street, N. E., Atlanta 8, Ga.
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The National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies of the United States publishes a booklet entitled *Accredited Institutions of Higher Education* (1958 edition, 36 pp.), which lists the institutions accredited by all of the regional associations. The secretary of the National Committee is C. Scott Porter, Johnson Chapel, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.

The Department of Education of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, 1312 Massachusetts Ave., Washington 5, D. C., prepares a directory of Catholic colleges and schools in the United States.

Secondary schools, both public and private, are accredited by state departments of education, by state universities, or by the regional associations listed above. In the New England section, however, the New England College Admissions Board is the accrediting agency rather than the regional association of colleges and secondary schools. State departments of education also issue bulletins giving information on approved high schools.—NEA Research Division.

NEW AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS IN SPANISH

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CHRONOLOGICAL RECORD OF DAILY EVENTS IN LINCOLN'S LIFE

A new 4-volume "Lincoln Day-by-Day"—more than doubling the information available in an earlier chronology of that title—will be published by the Lincoln Sesquicentennial Commission, it was announced by the advisory committee for the chronology. Editor-in-chief Miers described the new work as the last of three events of this generation that have brought Lincoln scholarship to new levels of usefulness for present and future historians. He cited the opening of the Robert Todd Lincoln Collection of Abraham Lincoln's papers in the Library of Congress in July 1947 and the publication in 1953 of *The Collected Works of Abraham Lincoln* as the first two.

The aim of the projected chronology is to draw together the scattered information about the important events of Lincoln's life and give them their proper dates and locations in a chronological record as complete as possible. Dates are important, for example, because newspaper reports filed from one city to another in that period sometimes appeared under the date of printing in the city of publication, rather than under the date on which they occurred, and the use of the later date by biographers has caused errors to appear in biographies in the past.

Volumes I and II of the new publication will be comprised of the original 4 volumes (plus new materials) of *Lincoln Day-by-Day*, which covered events in Lincoln's life from his birth only to March 4, 1861. Edited by Paul M. Angle, Benjamin P. Thomas, and Harry E. Pratt, the original chronology was published from 1933 through 1941 under the sponsorship of the Abraham Lincoln Association of Springfield, Illinois, whose president, G. W. Bunn, Jr., gave the Lincoln Sesquicentennial Commission permission to revise the original edition. Volumes III and IV of the new publication will be comprised entirely of new material and will bring the Lincoln record forward from his inauguration as President to his assassination on April 14, 1865.

Not only standard sources but the major manuscript collections at the Library of Congress have been tapped to give all four volumes tremendous value to students of American history, Mr. Miers pointed out. The new chronology has been designed for use as a companion volume to *The Collected Works of Abraham Lincoln*. For further details, write the Information and Publications Office, The Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

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PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT SURVEY IN BOSTON HIGH SCHOOLS

The Department of Vocational Guidance, Boston Public Schools, has recently completed a survey of the part-time employment of students in grades 10, 11, and 12 in eighteen Boston Public High Schools. Three years ago, in 1956, the first of such studies was published, and the present survey shows that fewer students are employed part-time than was the case three years ago.

A total of 13,206 students completed a questionnaire with reference to their after-school jobs, earnings, hours worked, type of employment, and other matters pertinent to such a survey. Three years ago a total of 13,867 students replied to such a questionnaire. In 1956 thirty-four (34) per cent of the students were working on a part-time job, while in the present survey (1959) a total of twenty-four (24) per cent of the young people were at work part-time. The employment of boys in a part-time job declined twelve (12) per cent from 1956, and the employment of girls in part-time work declined eight (8) per cent from 1956.

The average hourly wage of all students in 1956 was eight-two (82) cents and in 1959 it was ninety-eight (98) cents. The hourly wage of boys increased from eighty-seven (87) cents to one dollar and two (1.02) cents, and that of the girls increased from seventy-eight (78) cents to ninety-four (94) cents from 1956 to 1959. These students worked an average of sixteen (16) hours a week both in 1956 and in 1959, the boys working seventeen (17) hours and the girls working fifteen (15) hours both in 1956 and in 1959.—*Boston Guidance News*.

ANNUAL FOLLOW-UP STUDY

The guidance department of the Boston Public Schools made a Follow-Up Study of the Class of 1958 of the Boston Public High and Latin Schools, not including graduates of the Cooperative Industrial Courses. This study revealed the following data concerning the 3623 (1834 boys, 1789 girls) high-school graduates: attending day schools and colleges, 1382 (804 boys, 578 girls); working, 1662 (619 boys, 1043 girls); armed services, 319 (318 boys, 1 girl); evening schools and colleges, 184 (91 boys, 93 girls); miscellaneous, 260 (93 boys, 167 girls).

3-CURRICULA SECONDARY PROGRAM

The 3-curricula organization for secondary schools in Knox County, Tennessee, is the result of the cooperative efforts of teachers, principals, and the administrative staff. It was realized by all concerned that a reorganization or revision of the secondary program was a probable answer to more effective learning and teaching on this level. Later, when published, the State Survey's findings pointed up the need for changes in the secondary program. Members of the administrative staff went into each of the ten high-school communities and discussed with parents the new program. The reaction of the parents toward the program was 100 per cent favorable.

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The applied arts curriculum has been designed for those pupils who plan to enter vocations. This curriculum should not be considered only as one for those who plan to end their formal education on graduating from high school. Eighteen units are required for graduation in this curriculum.—*The Tennessee Teacher*, May 1959.

FIRE SAFETY IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The National Academy of Sciences . . . National Research Council, a private body of distinguished research scientists and engineers, has undertaken a special study of school fire safety. The study will be conducted by the Building Research Advisory Board (BRAB) with joint sponsorship of the Committee on Fire Research (CFR)—two Academy-Research Council groups—under a grant from Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc.

Chief purpose of the project is to assemble, evaluate, and publish information on the question of fire safety and its dual relationship to the economics of school structures and the educational needs of communities. A committee, composed of individuals competent in the fields of education, architecture and engineering, fire protection, fire research, building research, codes, and school and municipal administration, has been appointed to assume responsibility for the conduct of the study, the organization of a summing-up conference in the fall, and the later publication of an open report.

Responding to the multiple pressures of rapidly expanding school populations, greater competition for the tax dollar, and the consequent demand for utilization of antiquated and sub-standard school buildings, school officials throughout the nation are becoming increasingly concerned by a real dilemma facing them.

How, in the light of the tremendous financial burden involved, can they support the costs of eliminating fire hazards in existing structures, achieve the required degree of fire safety to occupants in new construction, and at the same time provide for the developing educational needs of the community? When does a school building become obsolete and how much expenditure is justified in rehabilitation for fire safety?

These and other questions of like nature pose real and controversial problems. Their solution requires school-board members, administrators, and a variety of community agencies to make value judgments having great impact upon the continued welfare of school children. It is the consensus of the Building Research Advisory Board and the Committee on Fire Research that a clear and current guide to the major consideration in school fire safety is urgently needed by school boards, educators, architects, builders, parents, and municipal planning authorities.

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National organizations who have been invited to lend assistance and who have indicated their willingness to cooperate in this study include the American Association of School Administrators, National Bureau of Standards, National Council of Independent Schools, Inc., National Council on School House Construction, National Education Association, National Safety Council, National School Boards Association, U. S. Chamber of Commerce, and the U. S. Office of Education.

The study will lead to a report following a fall conference of selected participants. Such a publication should assist individuals of public responsibility to make the necessary decisions, district by district, school by school, that are required to protect against loss of life by fire, giving consideration to existing or proposed codes, standards, laws and ordinances, relative costs; the educational implications of physical alterations to existing structures; and the implications to design criteria for proposed structures.

USE YOUR LIBRARY

School librarians throughout the nation will be working with teachers and students in the first weeks of school instructing students in the use of their school library. To assist them in this important work, the American Library Association (50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11, Illinois) has released a revision of the filmstrip, *Use Your Library*. This filmstrip presents the minimum information for use of the library by beginning high-school students and advanced junior high-school pupils. It shows how to find books, how to find factual information, and how to find magazine articles and pamphlets. Its revised text and all new pictures provide a teaching tool that fits today's needs.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROJECT

A grant of \$105,000 from the Ford Foundation will enable Bucknell University to undertake an important research program in cooperation with area public schools. As announced by Ford Foundation officials in New York, the grant to Bucknell reflects the Foundation's interest in achieving a "break-through in teacher education" and is one of ten made by the Foundation for that purpose. Under the terms of the grant, which will cover a three-year period, Bucknell will engage in an extensive project in cooperation with teachers and administrators in nine schools systems in four area counties as they seek new and better methods of educating their pupils. Its primary aims are to bring teachers up to date on subject matter, to improve their teaching methods, and to experiment with new programs or teaching aids. It will encourage and assist school personnel to identify, study, and solve their own educational problems.

A series of experiments and demonstrations to improve curriculum and methods will be an important part of the project. It will include development of a science program in 63 elementary classes in participating schools, the use of filmed physics and chemistry courses in nine high schools, team teaching in biology, and the creation of a seminar for gifted high-school students, conducted by both high-school and University faculty.

EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATIONAL FILMS AND TESTS

A grant of \$266,000 to make a series of 20 educational films and test their effectiveness in teacher training has been made by the U. S. Office of Education

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to the National Educational Television and Radio Center and the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics. The project will appraise the value of films as a substitute for actual observation of a demonstration class in mathematics. Films to be made in mathematics classes of the University High School, laboratory school of the University's College of Education, will demonstrate materials and methods developed by the UICSM. They will show how students are led by the teacher to make their own "discoveries" of mathematics principles—the UICSM approach to teaching of high-school mathematics.

When complete, the films will be substituted for actual observation in a training conference for teachers preparing to use the UICSM materials. Their reaction to the method and materials will be compared scientifically with that of a group of teachers who will observe instruction in an actual class during the four-week training conference. At the conclusion of the 2½-year study, the filmed demonstrations, if successful, will be made available to schools and teachers.

KENTUCKY EDUCATION STUDY SHOWS VOCATIONAL TRAINING NEED

More favorable family attitudes toward education, less need for young people to help out around the farm, and greater opportunities for part-time paid work in the community would encourage more rural youths to finish high school, according to a study released recently by the University of Kentucky. Entitled *The Educational Attainment and Future Plans of Kentucky Rural Youths*, the study evaluates attitudes of young people and their mothers toward formal education in three Kentucky Rural Development counties. According to the study, family income and position in the community greatly influence a child's use of available opportunities for education. Mothers' attitudes toward education were also an important factor. Another important finding of the Kentucky study points up the need for more vocational trades and industry training in schools. Only about 19 per cent of the boys interviewed in the three counties selected farming as the kind of work they wanted to do. Yet "none of the boys interviewed indicated they had ever taken a course in trade and industrial education in high school," according to the report.—*Rural Development News*

SELECTED FILMS ON CHILD LIFE

This new list of more than 300 films, *Selected Films on Child Life*, is of value to professional and citizen's groups, national organizations, and state and local agencies concerned with children. Each film in this new list has been carefully reviewed by the professional staff of the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the audience that can make best use of it was designated. Most of these films are for adults. Some, though made for classroom use with children, are included here because they present helpful information about children.

The list contains thirty-two categories covering the growth and development of children, conditions that handicap them, health and welfare programs and services, child care, family life, food and nutrition, community activities, children in other countries, and safety. New emphases during the past decade on such areas as mental health, mental retardation, adolescence, and handicapping conditions among children are reflected in the films presented.

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This list is a complete revision of earlier Children's Bureau film lists. It has been redesigned for easier use into a subject index, an alphabetical list of films, and a directory of distributors. *Selected Films on Child Life* is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., for 30 cents a copy, with a discount of 25 per cent in lots of 100 or more sent to one address.

AUTOMATION AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR OFFICE WORKERS

New office jobs—methods analyst, programmer, computer console operator, card-tape converter operator, and others—are being created by the use of electronic computers and related equipment. These jobs pay better and require higher levels of skill and training than many other clerical jobs, according to a bulletin—*Automation and Employment Opportunities for Office Workers* (15 cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.) prepared by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics. The first part of the bulletin contains a general discussion of the implications of the use of electronic data-processing equipment for clerical workers. The second part discusses in detail one of the new occupations—that of the programmer—which has emerged with the development of automation.

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